The Literary Digest

A WEEKLY COMPENDIUM OF THE CONTEMPORANEOUS THOUGHT OF THE WORLD

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Contents

Topics of the Day:

CANADA AND THE SEAL CONFERENCES 901
CONFLICTING DECISIONS ON CIVIL-SERVICE RULES 903
THREE NEW MINISTERS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES (PORTRAITS) 903
THE PHILADELPHIA GAS LEASE AGAIN 904
CHAMBERLAIN AND PINGREE ON MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION . . . 905
STREET-CARS AS OMNIBUSES 907
CARTOONS ON FOOTBALL 907

Letters and Art:

VERLAINE IN PRISON 908
HOME LIFE AND TRAITS OF MRS. HUMPHRY WARD 908
SENATOR HOAR'S VINDICATION OF EMERSON 909
THE GREATEST OF POLISH POETS . . 910
WHERE DID SHAKESPEARE GET HIS KNOWLEDGE? 910
USE OF THE MASK ON THE ANCIENT STAGE 912

Science:

A LONG-DISTANCE TYPEWRITER . . 913
THE NOISES IN STEAM-PIPES . . . 913
MARCONI'S SYSTEM OF WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY 914
PLAGUE AND FAMINE NATURE'S CURES FOR OVERPOPULATION 914
HOW TO SEE THE MOTION OF A GLACIER 915
WHITE SPECKS ON FINGER NAILS . . 916
GROWING SIZE OF OCEAN STEAMERS 916
CHANGEABLE ELECTRIC LETTERS . . 916
SCIENCE BREVITIES 916

The Religious World:

A BUDDHISTIC MASS 917
MR. TERRELL AND THE SULTAN . . 917
CELEBRATING THE WESTMINSTER STANDARDS 918
DEFENDING THE VERACITY OF THE HEXATEUCH 918
THE CROSS A RELIGIOUS SYMBOL BEFORE CHRIST 919
GOING BACK TO CHRIST 920

From Foreign Lands:

CUBA'S MISERY 921
EARLY CHINESE IMPRESSIONS OF WESTERN CIVILIZATION 921
FROM THE NIGER TO THE NILE . . 922
SOCIAL OSTRACISM OF THE ROYAL IRISH CONSTABULARY 922
BRITAIN'S ARMY 923
FOREIGN COMMENT ON THE NEW YORK ELECTION 924

Miscellaneous:

THE CHINESE WOMAN'S SMALL FOOT. 925
AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVES IN JAPAN . 925
DOUGHNUTS AND RELIGION 926
CORRESPONDENTS' CORNER 926
THAT ANCIENT RIDDLE.
DOMESTIC ANIMALS IN JAPAN.
BUSINESS SITUATION 927
CURRENT EVENTS 929
CHESS 930

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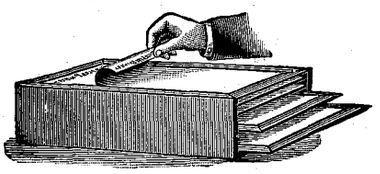

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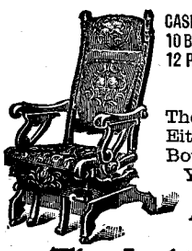

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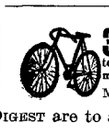

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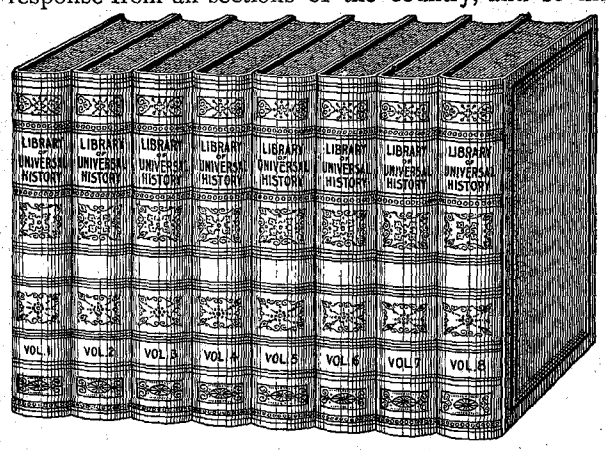

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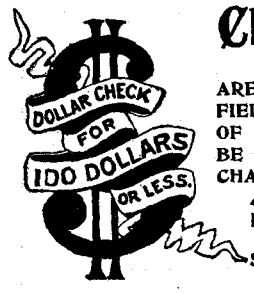

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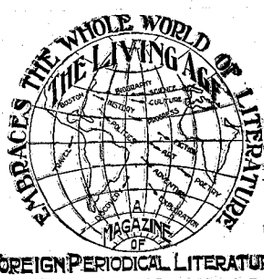

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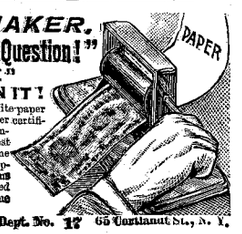

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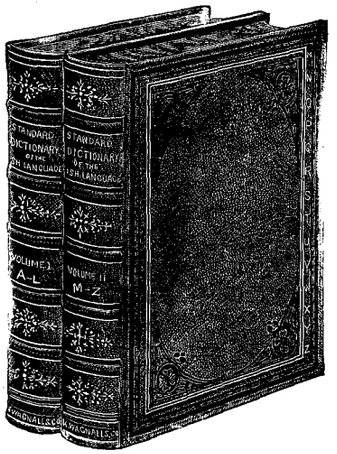

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TOPICS OF THE DAY.

CANADA AND THE SEAL CONFERENCES.

TWO conferences relative to the Bering seal controversy were held in Washington this month. Representatives of Russia, Japan, and the United States took part in the first one, and a treaty formulated by them now awaits approval by their respective governments. The definite provisions of this treaty have not been made public, but it is said to provide for a suspension of pelagic sealing under restrictions dependent in a measure upon Canada's attitude.

The second conference, consequent upon Lord Salisbury's refusal to participate in the first, brought together seal experts representing Great Britain, Canada, and the United States. These experts agreed upon a report which is summarized for the press as follows:

"That the Pribyloff herd has declined in numbers from 1894 to 1897; that the number was formerly three to five times that which now exists; that the death-rate among pups is great, not more than one half to one third surviving to the age of three years; that the number of breeding females in 1896 and 1897 was between 100,000 and 130,000; that the decrease from 1896 to 1897 was notable, tho its extent could not be definitely determined; that land-killing of males as now practised does no harm to the herd; that the pelagic sealers respect the limitations of the law; that pelagic sealing involves indiscriminate killing; that the catch at sea contains a marked excess of females; that the killing of males on land is the cause of this; that among the females killed are not only those both nursing and pregnant, but also many who are immature or who have already lost their pups; that the fur seal being polygamous, a large number of males may be killed with impunity; that females can not be killed in similar numbers without checking the increase of the herd or bringing about an actual decline; that a small number of females, less than the annual increment of breeders, might be taken without producing actual decrease; that excessive pelagic sealing has led to a reduction in the herds; that pelagic sealing has of late fallen off in greater ratio than the herd has, thus producing a tendency toward equilibrium in numbers; that in estimating the future conditions of the herd must be taken into consideration reduction in the number of surviving pups caused by the pelagic catches of 1894–95; that the herd is not in danger of actual extermination so long as its haunts on land are protected and the protected zone is maintained; that both land and sea killing now yield an inconsiderable profit either to the lessees or to the pelagic sealers themselves."

Signed by Charles Sumner Hamlin, David Starr Jordan, D'Arcy Wentworth Thompson, James Melville Macoun.

Premier Laurier of Canada, with Sir Louis Davies, Minister of Marine, made this conference the occasion of a visit to Washington which has been the subject of much speculation. The facts concerning it appear to be that General Foster, in whom the mission of negotiating with foreign governments on the seal controversy was vested by the Administration, received assurance in London of this visit of Canadian diplomats, altho the British Government bound itself only to participate in a conference of seal experts. The experts in conference having agreed upon a report, it is explained that diplomatic conferences were held between representatives of the State Department, the British Embassy, and the Canadian officials to secure some agreement concerning immediate suspension of pelagic sealing. The Canadians insisted upon considering other border controversies along with the seal question, and the appointment of a joint commission to arrange a general settlement of the Bering Sea dispute, reciprocity, border immigration, Atlantic fisheries, and all pending questions between the two governments.

The contention of United States representatives is that suspension of pelagic sealing can not be put off until action is matured on reciprocity and other subjects. The conference closed with the understanding that the Canadian contention be reduced to writing as a basis for further negotiations.

The "Treaty" with Russia and Japan.—"The 'treaty' to limit pelagic sealing in the Pacific, which Mr. Foster has been negotiating at Washington with representatives of Russia and Japan, turns out to be a very small affair as respects its scope, and no treaty at all until the governments of Russia and Japan have pronounced in favor of it. On studying its provisions the public will wonder why Mr. Foster should have taken so much trouble to get it. The temporary prohibition of sealing according to the 'treaty,' as reported, is to extend only to the area 'within the control' of the parties to the treaty. The representatives of Russia and Japan, it thus appears, only agree to come into the arrangement which we already have with Great Britain. They refuse to agree to abstain from catching seals outside the sixty-mile limit, just as Great Britain has done, but they agree to abide by the same restrictions that England has consented to. In other words, these powers say no to the proposal Mr. Foster has been urging on England—to suspend at once and without conditions the catching of seals in the open Pacific. The suspension agreed to is to 'extend over such time as in the opinion of experts the condition of the seals will require in order to insure their continued existence.' It may be inferred from this that the representatives of Russia and Japan, like those of England, are unprepared at present to say that any suspension at all is necessary. Their 'experts' are still to study the matter and decide whether the 'condition of the seals' is such as to imperil their 'existence.' Practically, then, the so-called treaty merely places Russia and Japan in the position England occupies—they will assent to a suspension of sealing provided their experts agree as to the alleged fact that the seal herd is nearing extinction. All depends on the matter of fact, and the experts are yet to find out what the fact is. Mr. Foster's account of the nature of his treaty

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is, however, it must be confessed, sadly wanting in clearness."—*The Sun* (*Ind.*), *Baltimore.*

"The signing of the new seal treaty between the United States, Russia, and Japan will settle, so far as these three nations can settle it, the status of the pelagic sealing. Tho the text of the treaty is not made public, it is sufficiently well known that the three countries agree to protect the seals from extinction by imposing severe restrictions on their capture in the open seas. If England and Canada can now be induced to enter upon a similar agreement, as there are strong reasons for hoping they will do, there may yet be a chance to save this valuable industry from the destruction which is threatening it."—*The Free Press* (*Nat. Dem.*), *Detroit.*

Monopoly and the Seals.—"As arranged from the beginning the representatives of the United States, Russia, and Japan in the seal conference have resolved that the only solution of the question at issue is in absolutely prohibiting the hunting of seals in the open sea, or what the diplomatists call in their high-sounding phrase, 'pelagic sealing.' After coming to this conclusion the seal conference has adjourned and left the question just where it was before. As Great Britain, Canada, and other maritime countries whose seamen roam the ocean in quest of spoils do not own any seal rookeries, they can not be expected to acquiesce in a policy so greatly, in appearance at least, to their own disadvantage. . . .

SIR WILFRID LAURIER, PREMIER OF CANADA.

"As evidence of the manner in which monopoly regards this question is a statement of Mr. Hermann Liebes, of the North American Commercial Company, the lessee of the Pribylof Islands. Mr. Liebes says the United States had an undoubted right to grant a lease of the seal fisheries upon the islands to his company and to permit the lessees to kill every seal frequenting the rookeries existing there. Grant the right of the Government to create this seal-killing monopoly, the policy of it is quite a different thing. . . .

"The real difficulty with Mr. Liebes is that pelagic sealing has made the business of the monopoly in clubbing seals quite unprofitable since the Paris award put an end to the seizure and confiscation of seal ships on the ocean.

"But if the catching of seals on the high seas can not be prohibited, Mr. Liebes, in the true spirit of monopoly, repeats the suggestion that the Government of the United States kill all the seals on the Pribylof Islands at once and have done with the business. Since the seals are destined to extermination by pelagic sealing in the long run, he insists upon a more speedy process. In his opinion all the seals on Pribylof Islands 'could be killed off in a week, and pelagic sealing thus suddenly brought to an end.' This would certainly make the business of the monopoly exceedingly profitable for the year of the extermination process.

"There is, however, another alternative, and that is totally to abolish the fur-seal monopoly in the Pribylof Islands, and thus bring to a close the unsportsmanlike practise of killing seals. It is a question whether the methods of this monopoly have not done quite as much as pelagic sealing toward diminishing the seal herds. But there is no question that the creation of the monopoly and its exclusive privileges was in violation of sound policy and destructive of private rights. If the killing of the seals while breeding and rearing their young on these Alaskan islands should be totally prohibited, it would probably be a long time before their extermination by pelagic sealing. Every argument against the right of seamen to pursue the seals on the high seas is an argument in favor of the clubbing monopoly, and all the diplomatic maneuvers and conferences to destroy the right have been for the exclusive benefit of this monopoly."—*The Record* (*Ind.*), *Philadelphia.*

Great Diplomatic Triumph.—"We have here [from the Canadian conference] for the first time in this controversy an agreed upon set of facts to form the basis of diplomatic negotiations. The conclusion which these facts point to is the need of prohibiting the killing of our seals by pelagic sealers. But it is not the province of the mixed scientific commission to arrange for the future, but simply point out conditions as it finds them, and permit arrangements for future action to be made by those who represent the respective governments in a diplomatic capacity. But surely, with these findings before them, it ought not to be difficult for enlightened statesmen to find a method of arriving at a satisfactory agreement.

"We insist now, as on a previous occasion, that we have no more right to capture fur seals on the land than the Canadians have to capture them in the water. If we are to secure from the Canadians a pledge that they will desist from further capture of fur seals in the manner they have hitherto taken them, because by a continuance in the business they will interfere with the proper prosecution of the fur-seal industry on our part, then we must be prepared to compensate them for their surrender. What form this compensation will take is a matter for diplomatic negotiation, and if a complete cessation of pelagic sealing could be assured, the United States Government, in view of its large interests, could afford to pay liberally for the immunity thus obtained. Hitherto we have never been able to come to an agreement on the facts in the case."—*The Herald* (*Ind.*), *Boston.*

Two to Make a Bargain.—"The conference at Washington between the representatives of our Government and those of Canada has been fruitless so far as any positive action is concerned. This is not strange when we consider that Canada can make no treaty, as such function appertains to the British Government, and that Canada has little to offer us in the way of reciprocity. One point gained is the practical acknowledgment by the Canadian sealing experts that Canada's pelagic fishing in the Bering Sea is destructive of the seals and threatens their extermination. It takes two to make a bargain, and so skilled a diplomat as Sir Wilfrid Laurier will not have the wool pulled over his eyes. As for the reciprocity which Canada would favor, it is doubtful whether the President and the Senate could accord these privileges without the consent of the House. The reciprocity provision in the Dingley act is an inconclusive and immature affair, without elasticity, and scarcely acceptable to any of our neighbors. The statesmen who planned it seem to have determined to eat the cake and retain the penny, to expedite our exports while keeping down imports, and that policy, however it may commend itself to Americans, meets with no favor whatever abroad."—*The Ledger* (*Ind. Rep.*), *Philadelphia.*

Smoothing the Way.—"It is evident enough that the Canadians have a motive in making vital admissions which they have hitherto refuse to make. They are hurt somewhat by our law against residents in Canada doing work in the United States; they would have been hurt a good deal had the Attorney-General held that section 22 of the tariff law meant what its authors claim that it meant, and that section may be enacted as a separate measure. There are other causes of friction between the Dominion and the United States which Sir Wilfrid Laurier, recognizing the importance to Canada of trade with the United States, is anxious to remove. Over and above all these, there is

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the very strong desire of Sir Wilfrid to secure a reciprocity treaty with this country. In order to smooth the way for the concessions he desires from us, he is willing to admit that pelagic sealing has greatly diminished the herd and has reduced the profits of our rookeries to little or nothing. After these concessions have been made by the Canadian experts, England can hardly refuse to join us in regulations that will be effective in the preservation of the herd, not merely from absolute extinction, but from such decimation that it will no longer possess any commercial value."—*The Journal of Commerce (Fin.), New York.*

Latest Phase of Reciprocity.—"What has come of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's visit to Washington? Simply this: He has refused to acquiesce in the agreement reached by the United States, Russia, and Japan to put an end to pelagic sealing. He, who really controls the action of the British Government with reference to the sealing question, will concur, he says, in the agreement above mentioned, provided the United States will make concessions to Canada in regard to other matters.

"No fewer than thirty countries have been admitted to the benefits of Canada's reciprocity tariff. . . . The United States, therefore, should they obtain, by a concession on their part, the benefit of the reciprocal clause of the present Canadian tariff, would have to share that privilege not only with Great Britain and France, but with upward of twenty foreign countries. What the United States desire, and deserve to have, if they are to make the concession proposed by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, is the power of underselling not only Great Britain, but all other countries, in the Canadian market. The concession requested by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, that, namely, of the admission of Canadian products to our markets under the reciprocity clause of the Dingley act, would enable Canada to undersell in our markets all foreign countries; at all events, so far as her principal raw products are concerned.

"It is absurd, then, to suggest that we should give Canada what virtually amounts to a preference against other foreign countries, when to us is offered in return no preference whatever. The truth is that partial reciprocity between the United States and Canada is as hopeless as unrestricted reciprocity. The only thing that Canadians can get from our republic is absolute free trade, coupled with discrimination against all foreign countries.

"This inestimable boon, however, they can get only in one way, namely, by becoming members of our Union."—*The Sun (Rep.), New York.*

A POINT OF DIFFERENCE.—"Well, I see that Messrs. McKinley and Laurier are likely to come to an understanding over the seal question." "Yes; that's where Messrs. McKinley and Laurier differ from me and my wife."—*The Leader, Cleveland.*

CONFLICTING DECISIONS ON CIVIL-SERVICE RULES.

JUSTICE JACKSON, of West Virginia, differs from Justice Cox, of the District of Columbia, and other judges concerning the force of civil-service regulations promulgated by the President. Justice Cox decided [see THE LITERARY DIGEST, September 25] that the enforcement of these rules is a matter between the President and his executive officers, and not a matter for the courts to construe as a part of the civil-service law. Justice Jackson, however, holds that the civil-service act is constitutional, and that executive rules promulgated by the President have the binding effect of the original law, being only methods of carrying out that law.

Of Justice Jackson's decision the New York *Nation* says in part:

"On the 27th of July last Mr. McKinley issued an order which laid down the rule that 'no removal shall be made from any position subject to competitive examination, except for just cause, upon written charges filed with the head of department or other appointing officer, of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defense.' In the West Virginia cases the collector attempted to remove men 'for the good of the public service,' without specifying any 'just cause' or giving them 'an opportunity to make defense.' Judge Jackson holds that this action was as plainly illegal as it was obviously improper.

"The argument of the judge is this: In the first place, the rules promulgated by the President and the Civil-Service Commission are clearly within their scope and power, under the civil-service act of Congress, and when they exercise the power to limit and restrict the power of removal as they deem best for the public interest, it is only the execution of a duty imposed upon them by Congress and which should be effectually performed and fully complied with. The very object and purpose of the rule of July 27 regarding removals was to furnish a full opportunity to everybody within the classified service to meet any charges made against him, and to prevent his removal without such charges. The assignment of the 'good of the public service' as a reason was an attempt to evade the rule, and was 'too general, vague, and indefinite to authorize the removal of an officer under existing law.' For these reasons, the judge concludes, 'I must hold that, under the rules promulgated by the President and Civil-Service Commission, and promulgated by that executive order, the effort to remove the officers in question is illegal.'

"Most readers who have followed the controversy over this question will be surprised at the strength of Judge Jackson's rea-

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soning, as there had been a disposition to agree with the other federal judges, who held that, as a matter of law, an executive rule, issued under the provisions of the civil-service act, could not destroy the freedom of a superior in the matter of removals. Of course, the dispute will be carried up to the Supreme Court for final adjudication. . . . . .

"The vast progress made by civil-service reform is only appreciated when one reflects that we now have an executive rule prohibiting partizan removals, and that the only question is whether this rule possesses the force of law, the administration having made it a feature of its policy, so that it is committed to its enforcement, whatever the courts may finally decide."

The Differences of Judicial Opinion.—"The facts in all the cases were similar—the head of a department, or office, undertaking to transfer a subordinate employee from one position to another. This is in violation of the civil-service rules promulgated by the President by virtue of the civil-service law. Judges Jenkins and Cox held that these rules were not valid, for the reason that they were in the nature of legislation and that Congress could not confer legislative powers on the President. On this ground they held that the head of a department or office had authority to transfer or remove a subordinate employee, notwithstanding the civil-service rules.

"Judge Jackson does not agree with his learned brothers, but holds that Congress had power to authorize the President to make rules for the government of all executive and ministerial officers and employees in the civil service, and that such rules when made have the effect of law and can not be violated.

"Judges Jenkins and Cox further held that there was no remedy in a court of equity for an officer removed or transferred under such circumstances. Judge Jackson holds that a court of equity is precisely the forum to which he should apply, for there only can he receive that full and adequate relief to which the law entitles him."—*The Times-Herald* (*Ind.*), *Chicago.*

Buncombe and Facts.—"The decision of Judge Jackson of West Virginia is clearly opposite to the recent decision of Judge Baker in all the fundamental principles, and the two make a very complete illustration of the ability of the courts to decide that the law is anything they may wish to decide it. As a question of fact, it seems clear that Judge Jackson's view is the more rational on account of one fact which he states, and that is that 'the leaving of discretionary power in the hands of the heads of departments makes the civil service a dead letter.' We say this is a fact, for it is so obvious that we think no one can successfully controvert it. It is easy enough to talk buncombe about it being easier to control the executive when the responsibility is thrown on him, but as a matter of practical politics the ordinary executive does not care the snap of a finger for any such responsibility. In fact, the natural pressure of such responsibility is for the violation of the law, for the pressure from the official's party associates is all in that direction, and these are the political friends who have been useful to him in the past, and who can be useful to him in the future. The opposing pressure comes from a mugwump element that whips into line nine times out of ten, and the other time goes off on a tangent for some cause that no mortal could have foreseen or guessed at. The idea that any executive would be constrained to non-partizanship in the absence of a compulsory law, by the extent of public sentiment in favor of it, is the most utterly unsupported theory that was ever offered to the American public."—*The Sentinel* (*Bryan Dem.*), *Indianapolis.*

Control of Subordinates Diminished.—"Many students of civil government who have practical acquaintance with the conditions in which the ruling will apply will be disposed to say that it is unfair to the administrative officers, whose control of their subordinates it diminishes almost to the vanishing point. An official who gives a heavy bond for the faithful conduct of his office, ought, it is argued, to have full power to surround himself with men of his own choice to assist him in the discharge of his duties. At least in the positions of trust, where money is handled or confidential information acquired, he should have the same freedom in this respect which a merchant enjoys in the selection of a bookkeeper or a confidential clerk. However much force this argument may possess, it affords no ground for finding fault with Judge Jackson, who has merely interpreted the law. If the law is deemed bad, it can be altered. It will be interesting to hear what Congressman Grosvenor of Ohio will find to say on the state of things produced by Judge Jackson's decision."—*The Evening Wisconsin* (*Rep.*), *Milwaukee.*

Fundamental Principles Involved.—"The question is, To what extent may the President carry his executive authority in regulating the conduct of civil-service employees before he trenches upon the domain of the legislative branch of government? Has Congress the authority to make over to the President the power to issue such an order as the civil-service rule, presuming that the rule is of a legislative rather than an executive character? The subject involves a number of fundamental principles, not only as concerns these two branches of government, but as to the position of the judiciary in deciding between them. Judge Jackson's opinion seems to be on the side of common sense, and as it would, if supported, remove almost the last resource of the spoilsmen, the public can not but hope that it will be sustained."—*The Record* (*Ind.*), *Chicago.*

Latent Powers of Jurisprudence.—"Judge Jackson, it will be recalled, was the judge who issued such a sweeping injunction in regard to the marching of strikers on public roads and on private property. His broad interpretation of the powers of a court of equity in that case will be forced upon one's attention in reading his civil-service decision. He particularly says in this that amid the complexities of social relation presented by modern life it is necessary to refer many new questions of personal right and privilege to the 'latent powers of our jurisprudence.' Evidently he recognizes that his opinion as to the vested possession of public offices by men subject to the civil-service act is something of an innovation. We do not pretend to say whether he is wrong or right. But it is at least clear that he has taken the view of the law in this matter which the friends of the merit system maintain. If the spirit of the movement has carried any moral force with itself, it has been a demand for the elimination of politics from the civil service. Judge Jackson has delivered an opinion which confounds efforts to play with the law, even if originating with the President. But to the credit of the Chief Magistrate it is to be said that not he, but his subordinates, have thus far attempted to assail the law."—*The Journal* (*Ind.*), *Providence.*

"We suppose that a cry will go up that Judge Jackson, the great enjoiner, has tied the hands of department chiefs to such an extent as to deprive them of opportunities to get rid of incompetent subordinates, but in fact he has done nothing of the kind. Chiefs who have incompetent or dishonest subordinates have only to prove the latter's incompetency and dishonesty to secure their removal. Only those who try to conceal partizanship under a vaguely official phraseology are interfered with by Judge Jackson."—*The Evening Transcript* (*Ind. Rep.*), *Boston.*

THE PHILADELPHIA GAS LEASE AGAIN.

CITY councils and the mayor of Philadelphia having authorized the lease of the city gas-works to a private corporation, opponents of the lease have petitioned for writs of injunction to prevent a consummation of the scheme. The fight on this lease [see THE LITERARY DIGEST, October 23] has possessed many points of interest. Local opposition, which appeared to be insignificant at first, received accessions from conservative quarters and latterly became the remarkable feature of the situation. Finley Acker, a leading grocer, issued a pamphlet entitled "Eminent Respectability," giving currency to a phrase that seems likely to stick in popular discussions of the relations between corporations and the public. Mr. Acker professed to find that the uniform answer of the promoters of the lease to arguments advanced against it was the eminent respectability of the prominent business men supporting and interested in the lease. He puts the case for the middle classes and the public in general thus:

"It will be noticed that one proposition is to do all that the United Gas Improvement Company proposes, and to give the city $1,000,000 additional. Another would carry out the same proposition and pay during the thirty years $19,200,000 additional. Another . . . another . . . and finally another proposition is to charge the city at once but 75 cents per thousand.

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"The remarkable scene, for which I defy history to furnish a parallel, is that of some of the most distinguished business men of Philadelphia, claiming to be actuated only by public-spirited motives, and solicitous only for the welfare of the city and its citizens, deliberately recommending in public, not the best of the above propositions; not the second best; not even the third or the fourth or the fifth, but recommending the adoption *of the most objectionable and least profitable proposition of them all!*"

Mass-meetings were held in opposition to the lease, but both branches of the council refused to submit the question of leasing to a vote of the people, disposed summarily of propositions from rivals to the United Gas Improvement Company, and passed the ordinance authorizing the lease by large majorities and by what has become currently designated as the "jamming" process in legislation.

Mayor Warwick, who at one time affirmed in a message to councils that the gas-works were too valuable a city property to be sold, in approving the ordinance says:

"If the plant were in a first-class condition, working satisfactorily and giving a fine quality of gas to the consumer, the lease would never for one moment have been considered; but the constant complaints of our citizens, and the inability to secure sufficient appropriations for the improvement of the plant, should be argument enough to show that the works should be leased to an experienced, responsible company able to furnish the money for the improvements required, and so organized that it can at once take hold of the works and operate them without delay.

"So many misstatements have been made that many people, no doubt, who have had no opportunity carefully to study the question, or even to read the ordinance, have been misled. It is not a sale of the works as some would have us believe; the city does not part with her franchise, she simply leases the works to a responsible company, bound by contract and under security. The lease will put money into the treasury of the city, and, with the expenditure of $5,000,000, in three years the plant will be brought up to date by process of manufacture and in the methods of distribution. The ten-years' clause, which reserves to the city the right to retake the property at the end of that time, is a valuable provision, and without it I would not have considered the original proposition.

"The simple business question narrows itself down to this, whether or not it is to the advantage of the city to continue operating the works in their present condition without sufficient appropriation at a loss, or to lease them for a term of years at a gain.

"It is a grave question in my mind whether or not any municipality should operate any manufacturing industry. The constant succession of administrations every four years, the consequent changes in the heads of departments, the inability to continue by reason of these changes a settled definite policy looking to one end, must prove to every thinking man that these conditions greatly interfere with the successful operation of any business enterprise. There is no private business that could prosper under such a system."

The first application for an injunction to restrain the mayor, director of public works, and controller from executing the lease "for a term of thirty years" is based upon the Bullitt bill, an act of legislature, under which it is contended that the assembly vested the power to operate the gas-works in the hands of the director of public works in the executive department of the city government, and that city councils can not, by enactment or otherwise, interfere with the executive functions of city officials. It is further alleged that the transfer of the gas-works property by the city to the United Gas Improvement Company will impair the contract under which the city obtained a loan for the extension of its gas-works, and is, therefore, illegal under the provisions of the Constitution of the United States and the constitution of the State.

Besides this application for an injunction three other applications were heard at the same sitting of a Philadelphia court of common pleas last week. The bills in equity filed as the bases for granting injunctions reveal interesting phases of the contest over the lease. The Baker syndicate makes the United Gas Improvement Company as well as the city officers defendants in its bill, and asks that consummation of the lease be prevented and the ordinance be declared illegal. The bill, besides attacking the right of the successful company under its charter to manufacture and supply gas so long as the Twenty-seventh Ward Fuel Gas Company has certain exclusive franchise rights, alleges that the ordinance of councils is unreasonable, against public policy, and void because it ties the city up for thirty years in a contract by which citizens are forced to pay a fixed figure for gas no matter what improvements may be made in production, because the city can not terminate the lease after the first ten years, and because the Baker syndicate ordinance had made a practical offer to the city more advantageous in the sum of about $10,000,000 besides a probable large reduction in the price of gas to consumers. Another bill filed for another syndicate covered similar points, averring that the failure of councils and of the mayor to consider more advantageous offers was neglect of duty; that the enactment of the ordinance under the circumstances is an assumption of authority not warranted by law, and that its passage was obtained by improper and unlawful influences and considerations. The fourth bill filed by citizens sets forth these claims against the lease:

"It is an attempt by the city of Philadelphia to grant the United Gas Improvement Company an exclusive privilege within the territorial limits of said city.

"It is an attempt by said city to bargain away the right of subsequent councils of the city to pass ordinances touching matters which may be requisite for the well-being of its citizens.

"It is an attempt by said city to contract not to exercise the police power.

"It is an attempt by said city to loan to the said company [United Gas Improvement Company] its property, effects, and credit, for the purpose of carrying on a business for joint benefit.

"It is an attempt to delegate to said company the power to make, supervise, and interfere with the money, property, and effects of said city.

"It is in violation of the provisions of the act of June 1, 1885 [the Bullitt bill]."

CHAMBERLAIN AND PINGREE ON MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION.

TWO speeches on municipal government have been widely quoted this month. The first one was delivered by the Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, colonial secretary of Great Britain and ex-mayor of Birmingham, upon the occasion of his installation as lord rector of Glasgow University. Mr. Chamberlain said:

"I believe that the success of our system here and the failure of the American system are to be found in the different ways in which we treat officials. Now, by officials I mean everybody who is employed by a corporation. There are, in the first place, the higher officials. When corporations undertake such business as is conducted by the great municipalities of England and Scotland, their higher officials are men who are entrusted with the management of departments, with the control of great manufacturing concerns, or with complicated systems of finance. They must be men of special capacity, special ability, or else there will be inefficient administration and great waste of public money. You must have, and you can afford to have, the very best men in their respective capacities, but if you are to have such men three things are necessary. They must be irremovable, except for some gross and proved offense. In the next place, they must be selected originally for their merits, absolutely without regard to their political opinions. And, in the third place, they must be paid the market price for their services.

"Now, I believe that as regards the first two of those conditions they would be universally agreed to, but I have seen in some corporations—notably, I recollect a speech made by Mr. Burns, the very able and estimable labor representative for the Battersea division—I believe it was Mr. Burns, but, at all events, it was a labor representative—in which he said nobody was worth more than £500 a year. Well, if any idea of that kind ever prevails in the administration of our great corporations, I warn those

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who are most interested in their success, and that is the working-classes of the country, that inevitably they will fail. It may, perhaps, be natural for the workingman, who is the employer, to say that he can not understand why his servants get a higher rate of payment than he gets himself; but he should remember that he is not only an employer, but he is a shareholder, and that if he wants a dividend he had better take care that the manager is well paid.

"There is another danger which I think is even more serious than any want of fair consideration for the higher officials, and that is that if the higher officials may occasionally be paid less than the market wages, there is a great fear lest the lower officials should be paid more than the market value. Now, that is a real danger. There is an idea growing up in the minds of a certain section of the working-class of this country that when a man becomes a public servant—a workman, that is to say, employed by a public corporation—he is to have better pay than his fellow workman doing precisely the same work under a private individual. I protest against that doctrine. I say, speaking with all my experience, that it is fatal to good municipal government, fatal to efficiency, fatal to the ultimate success of the institution which we now regard with so much pride. What will be the result of any such proposal? I agree that a corporation, a public body, should behave at least as well as the most liberal of private employers—not one whit better, because if it does behave better, then what it is doing is to create a privileged class of workmen to whom public office is in itself a distinct advantage, and in that case there would be an inevitable temptation—a temptation to which certain American municipalities have fallen a victim—to make these privileged posts the reward of political service. What happens then? In the first place, a man who gets a post of this kind thinks he has done all that ought to be expected of him, and the last thing he expects to do then is to give fair value for the money he receives. In the second place, when you have observed posts of this kind going at the will of a political party, there naturally arises a demand for them; and as the number of political posts will never equal the demand, the next thing is to put in two men to do the work of one. Now, if you consider for a moment the effect of this, you will find, I firmly believe, the whole secret of the failure of American local institutions, and you will see that if we are ever so foolish as to abandon the business-like and honorable system upon which our public work is now conducted, we may fall at last as low as our cousins unfortunately have done.

"I said just now, and I wish to emphasize the idea, that the working-classes are the people who are most interested in this business. After all, the most that can happen to the richer class in a town is that they will have to pay a little more in the way of rates and taxes. Altho that may be very objectionable to them, still it is never likely to ruin them. What happens to the workingman is that what he wants done is not done; that his health, his life, his enjoyment, his education, all suffer, because the business which is being carried on principally for his benefit is being neglected by the persons whom he has placed over it. I compared local institutions just now with companies. That is the true comparison for corporations. The shareholders are every rate-payer in the city, and the dividends are what return is made to them in the shape of those improvements and reforms which conduce to their comfort and their happiness. If they want to have good dividends, they must see that they put the right men on the directorate, and that the administration is thoroughly honest and thoroughly businesslike."

The second speech of note on the same subject was given before the Nineteenth Century Club, New York, by Gov. Hazen S. Pingree, ex-mayor of Detroit, Mich. Mr. Pingree said, in part:

"I am a little ashamed to say that ten years ago I knew but little about municipal affairs. I was like thousands of others of plain business men, who imagine that they are good citizens and that they are discharging all their public duties, and yet who do not take sufficient interest in the affairs of the town in which they live to understand much about them. In this I regard the business man and the well-to-do as greatly to blame. They not only allow but expect those upon whom they look down in contempt to furnish them with good government and to protect their lives and properties, without contributing anything toward it themselves. They grumble at the results of caucuses which they do not attend, and complain of the mismanagement of those whom they take no part in selecting. Occasionally they rise up and show their power in defeating unpopular nominees, but as a general rule they neglect their duties as citizens. I have come to regard it as the duty of every man to take part in the primaries, and believe it would be a wise law that would prohibit men from voting who have voluntarily abstained from taking part in nominations.

"I was first selected as a candidate for mayor of Detroit by the most influential people of the city. Men who had large holdings in railroads, in street-railway companies, in gas companies, those who held positions on the various boards of the city, prominent merchants, bankers, and professional men, all united in requesting me to become a candidate. I discovered very soon after my election that the railroads were paying less than their share of taxes. I said so, and the railroad support immediately left me. I discovered that the gas companies were charging exorbitant rates. I said so, and the owners of gas stock turned their backs upon me. I found the bankers speculating in the city funds. I denounced the practise, and they denounced me as an unsafe man. I attacked the old turnpike roads, and their owners called me an anarchist. In short, I found that every time I attempted to correct an abuse I lost a large and influential class of supporters. I was four times elected mayor, but in each campaign was made painfully aware of the loss of old friends, altho my majorities gradually crept up from about 1,500 to something more than 10,000. I was honored by the same constituency when elected governor by a majority of more than 18,000. It is something to be proud of that when the influential classes turned their backs upon me the common people of the city, who were too poor to have axes to grind and who were only interested in the growth and progress of the municipality, always stood by me and supported me in every forward step. When you consider this experience, you will not be surprised that I have come to lean upon the common people as the real foundation upon which good government must rest.

"Among those who have opposed the different reforms introduced are men who would be supposed to be above temptation and who are universally regarded as the highest types of citizens. They occupy high places in commercial life. Some of them are judges; some of them are senators and members of legislative bodies; some are great bankers; some are merchant princes. All of them are eminently respectable, yet strange as it may appear, their opposition has in almost every instance resulted from their interest in public charters and monopolies, which had been procured by questionable methods. Against the influence of such men it has been absolutely necessary to appeal to the masses to prevent the city from being tied hand and foot and plundered without mercy. I have come to agree with the celebrated English divine who said: 'In every country the nation is in the cottage, and if the light of your legislation does not shine there, your statesmanship is a failure and your system is a mistake.' I have been made painfully aware of the expenditure of large sums of money to elect corrupt aldermen and other officials. This money is contributed by men who stand high in the community, and who expect to be paid back a hundredfold from the public treasury. Their efforts to corrupt the people are resisted by the poor, the honest yeomanry of the land.

"You will ask, perhaps, whether I can suggest any remedy for the evils which I have been describing. My experience has brought my mind to this conclusion: That the streets of a city belong to the people, and that no mayor or common council has a right to barter them away. They belong to the living, and not to the dead. The remedy against many of these evils is municipal ownership and the entire abolition of monopolies; or, if monopolies must exist which depend upon public favor, their absolute control by and dependence upon the people. So long as we allow persons to speculate in the use of our streets we must expect the people to be subjected to exorbitant charges. So long as we depend upon private companies for light we must expect poor service and high rates. This remedy will not only solve many municipal problems, but, applied on a larger scale, will bring railroad companies, express companies, steamboat lines, telegraph companies, telephone companies, and other agencies of commerce under proper subjection.

"We have an extraordinary spectacle presented in nearly all of our American cities at the present time of new railroads applying for admission and unable to obtain an entrance on account of the opposition of the old lines. The time is ripe for the people themselves to control those matters, and make all these agencies

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of commerce act for the general benefit rather than for personal gain. The terminals, at least, should become the property of the people. When we reflect that no railroad can be constructed, that no telegraph wire can be strung from town to town, or from State to State, that no street-railway can be permitted to occupy our streets, without some public franchise, we must see that we are jobbing out the sovereign power of the people to speculators, who, when franchises have been obtained, use them to rob and plunder the public.

"I have found it necessary, and have continually practised it, to pull the screens wide open in front of every man who was doing dirty work, call him by name, and show up his schemes in the newspapers. It is your so-called respectable people who are the most dangerous. Their cloak of eminent respectability hides them, and people hardly believe you when you show them up, especially when they are church-members or carry long faces. My experience is that those who stand foremost in the synagog and utter long prayers of a Sunday, and engage the rest of the week in bribing aldermen or getting up stock-jobbing schemes to defraud the widows and orphans, are the most dangerous members of society. Good municipal government is an impossibility while valuable franchises are to be had and can be obtained by corrupt use of money in bribing the people's servants. Even now the citizens of Detroit hardly dare go to sleep nights for fear that some old gang will bribe the aldermen to extend their franchises thirty years. The people must be kept awake—constantly awake—or the thief slips in.

"Last winter, in the Michigan legislature, I tried to have some legislation passed which would tax railroads as other property is taxed, and to have uniform fares established for rich and poor alike. I failed. The railroads were too much for me. The lobbyist was there with boodle and others with promises of federal office to kill the bills. But I am going to try again. . . . I am one of those who hope and believe that self-government by the people and for the people has not been half tried nor reached that stage which all men who love liberty hope it will eventually reach. We may in the near future pass through troublous times, for, as 'constant vigilance is the price of safety,' so must liberty be regained at times. Greed in the United States must be curbed, for greed is the root of all evil, national and political. Wrong can not stand before right and truth, except for a while. What is right will prevail in the end."

Street-Cars as Omnibuses.—Charles Francis Adams, chairman of a committee appointed by Governor Wolcott of Massachusetts to investigate street-railway problems, has come to the conclusion that street-cars ought to be regarded as omnibuses, running upon an improved pavement on the king's highway, and that if they had been regarded in that light there would not have been the present confusion in considering street-railway corporations in their relation to the municipality through whose street their cars are run. Mr. Adams is a railroad man, has visited foreign and home cities in the course of the present investigation, and with the other members of the committee has been holding hearings on the street-railway question in his home State. Boston correspondence of the New York *Evening Post*, in reviewing the work of this important committee, says: "The committee was created in consequence of the fact that thus far in Massachusetts, as doubtless in most States of our Union, no charge is made to any street-railway corporation for the use of the streets. When these 'omnibuses on improved pavements on the king's highway' were first put in operation, the people were only too glad to give them right of way in the streets, letting the corporations take the chance of making whatever profit they could. It is only as the cities have grown and the number of passengers has multiplied faster than the population, and the great value of the franchises has become apparent, that this public demand for payment for the franchise has arisen. Mr. Adams, commenting to-day upon an argument and statement of facts which was represented to the committee by a representative of the country lines of electric cars, said that if the legislatures had not made the mistake of following the analogy of railroads in their treatment of railways (for in Massachusetts, by statute, 'railroads' are the steam lines running on their own locations, while 'railways' are the street, horse, and electric lines, running upon public locations), it would have been possible to charge licenses for the operation of the street lines, just as lines of omnibuses used to be licensed, and this difficulty about charging for the franchise, or about the methods of taxation, would not have arisen. In order to reach a satisfactory theory for the treatment of railways, some way must be found out of the original error of regarding them in the light of railroads."

CARTOONS ON FOOTBALL.

THE TWELFTH PLAYER IN EVERY FOOTBALL GAME.

—*The World, New York.*

FOOTBALL IN GEORGIA.

AS IT . AS IT MAY BE.

—*The Republican, Denver.*

WHAT OUR COLLEGES ARE FAST COMING TO.

The Journal, New York.

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LETTERS AND ART.

VERLAINE IN PRISON.

TWO years of Paul Verlaine's erratic career were passed in a Belgian prison. Lepelletier, Verlaine's friend, tells about the incident that led to this imprisonment, and S. C. de Soissons quotes, in *The Forum* (October), from the account. The poet, in 1872, after separating from his wife, went to Belgium in company with Arthur Rimbaud, another poet, of fantastic but uncommon talent. Lepelletier's account proceeds as follows:

"Rimbaud, who dug deeply into Verlaine's pocket-book, once asked for some money for a trip to Charleville. Verlaine refused. Rimbaud insisted, shouted, swore. This scene took place in the presence of Mme. Verlaine, who tried to calm the strife between the two friends, excited by an unlimited number of drinks. Rimbaud announced that he would go at any rate; he opened the door; Verlaine rushed after him, and, pulling a revolver—which in those times he always carried with him—threatened Rimbaud with it. The latter tried to seize his arm. While they were struggling, the revolver exploded, slightly wounding Rimbaud's hand. Rimbaud ran to the stairs, calling 'Help me!' Like a madman, Verlaine pursued him and, without any conscience, fired a second time, fortunately without any damage. Policemen arrested and disarmed him; and he was brought to court. A Belgian citizen would have been put in prison for two weeks for the unlawful carrying of firearms and unwarranted use of them. The accused, however, was a Frenchman; and police records pointed at him as being a member of the Commune. Complaints of his father-in-law and the hatred of his wife were aggravating circumstances. He was given the severest punishment and sentenced to two years' imprisonment. The fact that Verlaine was a poet also influenced the Brabant judges."

From the prison in Brussels he wrote as follows to Lepelletier:

"BRUSSELS, Sunday, September 28, 1873.

"MY DEAR FRIEND:

"When this reaches your hands, be so kind as to answer it by return mail. You can easily understand how much I care for it. For three weeks I have not had any visitors, because my mother is gone away; and since her departure I have received only one letter from her. I wrote to her last Sunday, and am still waiting for an answer. In her present state of sorrow and depression, being absolutely alone, as you know, and having such a restless disposition, she makes me uneasy when she ceases to write to me. A thousand bad thoughts swarm around me, making my dreadful situation even worse. From time to time I receive a letter; but this must not prevent you from acceding to my request. A letter is such a pleasure to an unhappy prisoner. Write, then, at length and as distinctly as you can; nor for me, because I am accustomed to your scribbling, but on account of the director of the prison, in order to avoid any delay. Tell me about Paris, about my friends, and whether you have any news from Rue Nicolet [a street in Montmartre quarter, where Verlaine's wife lived with her parents]. Have the Parisian newspapers written anything about this unfortunate affair? Is Victor Hugo in Paris? Give me his address. [The great poet tried to obtain pardon for Verlaine, but without success.]

"I suppose mother has spoken to you about the great importance I see in the publication of my small book, 'Romances sans paroles.' I shall correct and print it myself.

"I have numberless literary projects; above all, theatrical ones, because, as soon as I am out of prison, I contemplate working very hard in order to make a living by my pen. I will write to you fully later on about it.

"I do not know when they will put me in another prison. It may happen any moment; therefore, write to me soon.

"I beg of Laure [Lepelletier's sister] to visit my mother as often as possible; and I thank her for the solicitude she has shown me and for my mother.

"I am longing especially during the last two weeks, and my health is not the best. Sometimes I have dreadful headaches; and I am more enervated than ever. Do not say anything about it to my mother; and if you see her before she receives my letter, tell her that I have written to you and that I am well.

"Give my best regards to Blemont and Valade. I press your hand cordially."

Commenting on this letter, the writer in *The Forum* says:

"This letter is a *document humain*, testifying, with eloquence, to the resignation with which the poet endured his unhappy lot, as well as to his impressionable heart, and his love for his mother. The *naïveté* of this sentiment he preserved to the end of his life: he remained a light-headed, foolish, good child.

"After his release from prison, he settled with his mother on a small estate in Ardennes. He was penetrated with a profound contrition, seeking a quiet harbor and religious consolation, which was a source of joy to his impressionable soul; he even spent a few months in the quiet cell of a monastery. The fruit of this repentance was a volume of poetry, 'La Saggese' (1880).

"But the Verlaines were soon obliged to sell the farm and go to Paris. Days of misery came; and, after his mother's death, the poet plunged again into the crazy whirlpool of Bohemian life."

HOME LIFE AND TRAITS OF MRS. HUMPHRY WARD.

AMONG the novelists of this period, the author of "Robert Elsmere," "Marcella," "David Grieve," and "Sir George Tressady" occupies a unique place. She is classed neither with the realists nor with the romanticists; she stands alone. She has been called the successor of George Eliot, on account of the seriousness of her aims and the loftiness of her purposes. She has been accused of "philosophizing" in her novels, of indulging in sociological, religious, and political discussion; but it is admitted that a novel from her pen without these elements can hardly be imagined.

A character study which throws light on her development and mental habits appears in the current London *Bookman*. Her life is intimately connected with her literary work and is indeed reflected therein most faithfully. She lives in a typical English village, Aldbury, in an ancient manor-house called "Stocks," from the old-time instruments of punishment which stand in a quaint spot near by. Stocks figure in more than one of Mrs. Ward's novels. The history of the village is continually suggested in "Marcella," and the poaching catastrophe of the story was based on an actual and terrible event that had occurred at Aldbury shortly before she came to make her home there. We quote from the sketch in relation to the family and the environment of the novelist:

"Sympathetic as Mrs. Ward is with the sorrows and needs of the poor, she is not exactly suited for playing the rôle of an active Lady Bountiful, and it is seldom, if ever, that she enters any of the Aldbury cottages. Still, the people like to see her kind and pleasant face as she drives through the village, and they all know that no one would apply at the Stocks for help in vain. Mrs. Ward's family consists of a son and two daughters, and they are active in promoting various little schemes for the good and pleasure of the people, especially Miss Ward, who is a frequent visitor in the cottages. During this summer she has been having batches of poor children down from London and boarding them in village families, thereby bringing grist to the home mill of the necessitous in the place, and at the same time securing the city sparrows a country holiday. The children are allowed to play in the park at the Stocks, and many kind words do they get from its mistress, to whom nothing appeals more readily than joyless childhood. Mr. and Mrs. Humphry Ward keep a very hospitable house, and as they are only an hour's railway ride from London they are seldom without guests. Mrs. Ward's social tastes are not for the fashionable world; she abhors the smart sets, and mixes chiefly in literary, artistic, and academic circles. Culture is the predominant note in her home. Reserved and somewhat constrained in manner when in public, she displays a quiet wit to her intimates, and is a pleasant and bright talker. There is nothing of the severe recluse or the 'blue' about Mrs. Ward; she is a lady upon whom learning sits lightly and gracefully. . . . This same lady could deliver a lecture upon English Unitarianism

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and hold some of the most noted divines of the day in rapturous attention."

The qualities which make Mrs. Ward an "earnest" novelist are inherited. She is an Arnold, her father, Thomas Arnold, and her brother, Matthew Arnold, having achieved fame through the same qualities. She was born in Tasmania, where she passed only the first five years of her life. Upon leaving school she began her literary labors in the atmosphere of Oxford, under the guidance of philosophers and moralists. She wrote critical essays, reviews, and didactic stories for children. At that time the religious conflict between Low and High Church had abated, but there was unrest and uncertainty in theological circles. The position of the church toward socialism was becoming a live problem. The story of "Robert Elsmere" was then thought out. The writer says:

"It is hardly possible that Mrs. Ward took herself so seriously when she wrote 'Robert Elsmere' as to suppose that she was going to create something of a revolution in the world of religious thought, and the reception which the book received upon its publication in 1888 came as an overwhelming surprise to her. It was much more than the popular novel of the year, it seized upon the thinking portion of the public. . . .

"Never, surely, had any novelist, still less a woman writer, been taken so seriously before, and whether she willed it or not, Mrs. Ward found herself regarded as the priestess of the broader thought. Uneasy might lie the head of a novelist thrust into such a position. Mrs. Ward maintained her equilibrium, and published no other novel for four years. Meanwhile she was fêted and lionized as much as her retiring disposition would allow. One of the most memorable of her public appearances was at the reception given in her honor by the Cosmopolitan Club, and an interesting figure she made in her simple white gown, discoursing upon the relation of morality and Christianity in diffident but earnest tones. She was accompanied by her father, looking naturally pleased at his daughter's triumph, altho I believe that had Mrs. Ward taken the advice of her nearest relatives she would not have ventured on the publication of 'Robert Elsmere' at all. There is a particularly close bond of feeling between Mrs. Ward and her father, and it was to him that in love and gratitude she dedicated 'Marcella.'"

It is not generally known that, as one effect of the agitation over "Robert Elsmere," Mrs. Ward established a home for independent Christian thought called University Hall. It is thus described:

"It has three branches—a lecturing agency, a Settlement, and a Socialistic center. Of the Settlement Mrs. Ward says: 'To me a Settlement is first and foremost a place of meeting, a means of comradeship between those who have much to gain from each other, and who, but for the Settlement, might, as things are now, miss those joys alike of giving and receiving which ought to be theirs. The true home gives kindness, knowledge, art, amusement to its children. The help and service that its inmates yield to each other carries no demoralization with it; it is based on a true sympathy. So, with the larger home of the Settlement, it is there to do something more than our private homes can do for the equalization of opportunities and conditions.'"

What is Mrs. Ward's attitude toward the "woman question" and the different emancipation movements? The writer says:

"Mrs. Ward has not taken any pronounced attitude toward the woman's movement, except on its educational side. While at Oxford she was upon the committee for promoting the higher education of women, and has remained a strong sympathizer with all that tends to give women an equal intellectual equipment with man. By heart and instinct Mrs. Ward belongs more to the *purdah* type of women—shunning publicity and delighting in the seclusion of home—than to the advance-guard of the 'Moderns'; yet one can not read her books without realizing that she has very strong sympathies with the women who, like her own 'Marcella,' fret against the bonds of sex and custom, and aspire with passionate longing to be free to work out their own mental and social salvation and that of everybody else. She takes a decided stand against anything which has a tendency to place men and women in separate or opposing camps. Union between the sexes and personal freedom for each is her ideal. She would break down the bondage of the married slave, of either sex, just as she would seek to establish a common citizenship between the rich and the poor; those of unlimited opportunities, and those of restricted position in life. Certainly a novelist who gives her favorite heroine the sum of two thousand a year to spend exactly as she likes, even on socialistic schemes with which her husband is not in full sympathy, can not fairly be considered much behind the spirit of the times. Balance is, perhaps, the dominant note in Mrs. Ward's character."

SENATOR HOAR'S VINDICATION OF EMERSON.

THE venerable Senator from Massachusetts has had his feelings stirred to indignation by an article on Emerson appearing in the Boston *Journal of Education* (October 14). One of the passages in that article ran as follows:

"From 1821 to 1832 were the shiftless years of Emerson's life. He drifted and was out of his element in thought and action. Lafayette visited the country in 1824, and all the land was ablaze with enthusiasm, but Emerson was unmoved by it. Adams, Clay, and Jackson made heroic efforts to become President of the United States, but he did not care. Webster made the great speeches of his life in those years, but they affected him not. Thomas Jefferson and John Adams died on the Fourth of July, but he mourned not."

The same article contains the assertion that few writers knew so little about nature as Emerson. He never wandered into field or forest, and the only interest he ever had in the soil or its products was the interest on mortgages he held on scores of farms!

In a letter to the New York *Tribune* Senator Hoar declares the article slanderous, and calls upon *The Journal of Education* to disavow it or lose the respect of decent people. Says the Senator:

"Emerson was, I think, as learned a naturalist as we had in Massachusetts in his time. He took his daily rambles in the extensive woods about Concord, most of them alone, tho rarely some special favorite was admitted to his companionship, as, for instance, James Russell Lowell in one walk to the Cliffs, which he describes. He knew the names, habits, and haunts of all our birds, and was familiar with all our plants, not only as an observer of their growth, but with great scientific precision. I think he was a much better naturalist, so far as scientific knowledge is concerned, than Thoreau."

Emerson and Webster, continues the Senator, were on terms of very cordial friendship, and to say that Emerson was not affected by the latter's speeches is "specially absurd." Senator Hoar reminds the critic of the noble tribute paid Webster in the Phi Beta poem—which, however, was written two years later (1834) than the period of which *The Journal* writer speaks. The critic is also reminded of the lines of tribute to Lafayette in Emerson's hymn "Boston." The Senator also resents the statement that Emerson was a failure as a preacher, and declares that when he left the pulpit for a wider audience he was "already becoming one of the famous preachers of his time." He does not believe that Emerson was ever a lender of money or that he had any to lend. He concludes:

"I believe there was never an election in which Emerson did not take a deep interest, as became a good citizen. He delivered an address, in 1839, I think—a beautiful address on the anniversary of the emancipation in the West Indies. He made a spirited and eloquent speech at the meeting of the citizens to express the public feeling in regard to the expulsion of Samuel Hoar from Charleston. In 1835, just after the period of which this writer speaks, he delivered his oration at the two-hundredth anniversary of the settlement of the town, an address which is the model and the despair of all persons who would describe New

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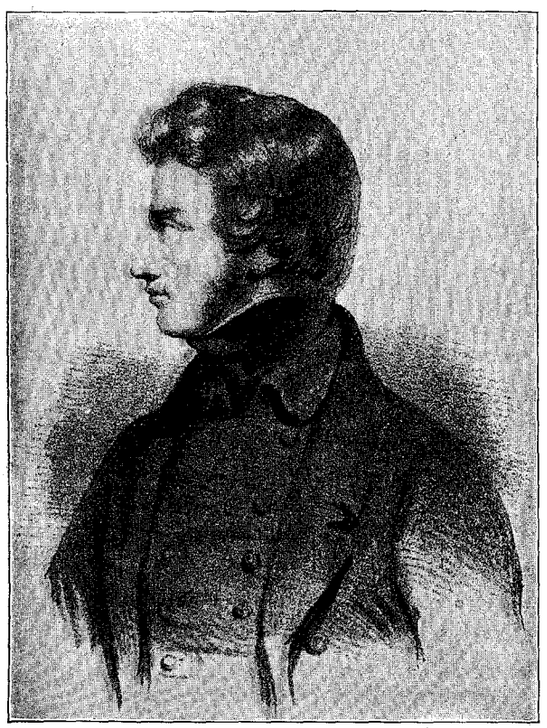
England town government or the traits of the New England character.

"I believe there was never a man in Concord who deserved sympathy in any sorrow or trouble who did not get it from Emerson, if he knew of it, as became a good neighbor and friend.

"To those who knew the man, the whole picture is unspeakably absurd and false."

THE GREATEST OF POLISH POETS.

ONE of the noteworthy facts connected with the as yet brief reign of the present Czar of Russia, Nicholas II., is his conciliatory attitude toward the Poles. In consequence, never since the time of the French Revolution has the "Polish question," that *bête noir* of Russian, German, and Austrian monarchs, been less troublesome than it is to-day. Perhaps no single fact is more significant of the Russian Government's change of policy



ADAM MICKIEWICZ.

toward Poland than the permission accorded by the Czar to erect at Warsaw a monument in the form of a marble statue to Adam Mickiewicz, the Polish poet the centenary of whose birth occurs next year.

Mickiewicz was the representative poet of his country, and her customs, her superstitions, her history, and her struggles are reflected in his works. He is, by very general consent, held to have been the greatest Slavonic poet with the exception of Pouchkine, who, by the way, was one of his closest friends.

A Polish writer, Stanislas Rzewski, contributes an article on Mickiewicz to the French section of *Cosmopolis*. He begins by earnestly declaring that the Poles are loyal to Russia. The Russian Empire to-day, he says, "does not possess subjects more loyal, faithful, and devoted than the Polish people. . . . The political loyalty of the Poles can not for a moment be suspected, it is so plainly evident and sincere."

The response to the call for popular subscriptions to the monument fund has been hearty and adequate. The amount ($120,000) asked for to build the marble statue, we are told, was oversubscribed almost as soon as opportunity was offered, "all classes, from those of aristocratic birth to the peasants of the soil," contributing eagerly.

As a preliminary to an analysis of Mickiewicz's work, this writer gives it as his opinion that the Polish literature is "one of the most remarkable in Europe. It boasts of eminent writers in all fields of letters—lyric poetry, romance, the drama, criticism, history, and philosophy."

M. Rzewski then proceeds to analyze Mickiewicz's style and work. He says:

"Without doubt Adam Mickiewicz, only vaguely known to the *élite* of letters and almost completely forgotten by the multitude, was, nevertheless, really an equal of the greatest minds. . . . The author of 'The Ancestors' was as great a poet as the immortal singers whose resplendent genius, in the annals of humanity, will always lend an aureole of imperishable glory to the (now) expiring nineteenth century. He is the compeer of Goethe and Schiller, of Byron and Shelley, of Victor Hugo and Lamartine, of Alfred de Vigny, of Pouchkine, of Nekrassof, and of Oehlenschläger. Splendor and lofty beauty of imagery; a symbolism admirable and profound in the true sense of the word, which expresses the very essence of all poetry; a strange and unique conception of the universal enigma, of the elusive problem of origin and destiny (every true poet is necessarily a thinker and a metaphysician); a well-developed faculty of lyric invention; a very keen perception of the pathetic and the grand, of that eternal beauty which resides in despair, of the agony and tragedy of fate upon the plane on which move poets of the race of Æschylus and Shakespeare; finally, and above all, a marvelous faculty of verbal expression and that mysterious gift of rhythm which is of necessity innate and unconscious—Mickiewicz possesses all these lofty, precious, and rare faculties of a great poet. . . . 'The Lyric Poems,' 'The Ancestors,' 'Monsieur Thadée,' but above all 'Konrad Wallenrod,' will live as long as the Polish language. These faultless poems . . . belong to that slowly forming cosmopolitan literature, . . . a literature truly international, truly European, in which the masterpieces of the German Richard Wagner will be judged by the same standard as those of the French Lamartine, in which the songs of the Russian Pouchkine will live in the glory of immortality, by the side of those of the Polish Mickiewicz, who died poor, outlawed, and forgotten."

Mickiewicz, says this writer in closing, while he will "always remain the living symbol of a dispersed nation, of a great people conquered and oppressed," is yet "a maker of classics," "a citizen of the entire world."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

WHERE DID SHAKESPEARE GET HIS KNOWLEDGE?

"THE silliest mare's nest ever devised by human dulness" is, in the opinion of John Fiske, the historian, the theory that Bacon wrote the plays of Shakespeare. Through eighteen pages of the current *Atlantic Monthly* he pursues the expounders of that theory with deadly intent and unsparing language. By no permissible laxity of speech can any one of them be termed a scholar, so he says; the unfortunate lady who first propounded the theory (Miss Delia Bacon) was at the time (1857) sinking under the cerebral disease of which she died two years later, and her imitators have been "chiefly weak minds of the sort that thrive upon paradox, closely akin to the circle-squarers and inventors of perpetual motion." But, morbid phenomenon tho it is, the theory has a natural history which is instructive, and he proceeds to trace it to an origin in the absurd claims of fond and foolish commentators who have discovered in the plays all sorts of hidden philosophy and impossible knowledge.

The two premises on which the Bacon-Shakespeare theory rest is (1) that the dramas abound in evidences of extraordinary book-learning; (2) that Shakespeare could not have acquired such learning. But Dr. Fiske denies the first premise. It is precisely in their freedom from such learning that Shakespeare's plays are conspicuously different from many contemporary plays, those of Jonson, for instance, and from many literary masterpieces, such

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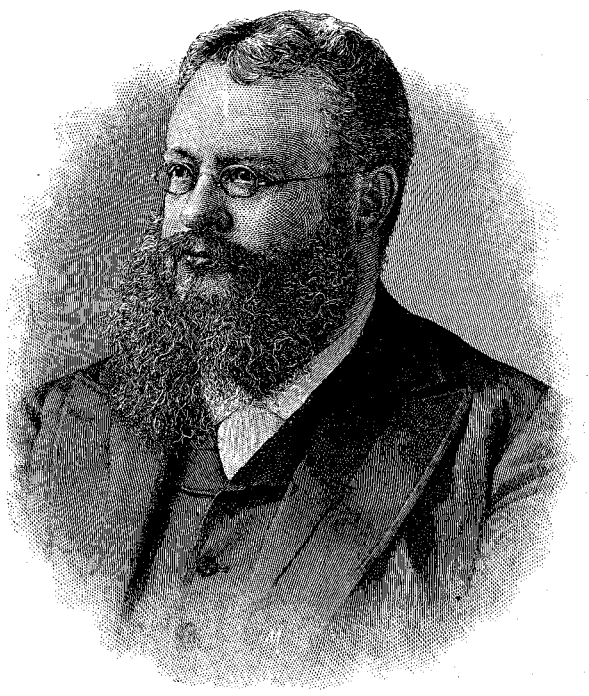
as Milton's "Lycidas." Jonson and Milton were indoctrinated in classical lore, but there is nothing of the sort in Shakespeare:

"He uses classical materials or anything else under the sun that suits his purpose. He takes a chronicle from Holinshed, a biography from North's translation of Plutarch, a legend from Saxo Grammaticus through Belleforest's French version, a novel of Boccaccio, a miracle-play—whatever strikes his fancy; he chops up his materials and weaves them into a story without much regard to classical models; defying rules of order and unity, and not always heeding probability, but never forgetful of his abiding purpose, to create live men and women. These people may have Greek and Latin names, and their scene of action may be Rome or Mitylene, decorated with scraps of classical knowledge such as a bright man might pick up in miscellaneous reading; but all this is the superficial setting, the mere frame to the picture. The living canvas is human nature as Shakespeare saw it in London and depicted with supreme poetic faculty."

True, the plays display a wonderful wealth of knowledge, but such knowledge as comes from a genius for observation and insight and assimilation. To illustrate the wonders such genius may accomplish, the writer tells this incident concerning Herbert Spencer:



JOHN FISKE.
Courtesy of Houghton, Mifflin & Company.

"I remember one evening, many years ago, hearing Herbert Spencer in a friendly discussion regarding certain functions of the cerebellum. Abstruse points of comparative anatomy and questions of pathology were involved. Spencer's three antagonists were not violently opposed to him, but were in various degrees unready to adopt his views. The three were Huxley, one of the greatest of comparative anatomists; Hughlings Jackson, a very eminent authority on the pathology of the nervous system; and George Henry Lewes, who, altho more of an amateur in such matters, had nevertheless devoted years of study to neural physiology and was thoroughly familiar with the history of the subject. Spencer more than held his ground against the others. He met fact with fact, brought up points in anatomy the significance of which Huxley had overlooked, and had more experiments and clinical cases at his tongue's end than Jackson could muster. It was quite evident that he knew all they knew on that subject, and more besides. Yet Spencer had never been through a course of 'regular training' in the studies concerned; nor had he ever studied at a university, or even at a high school. Where did he learn the wonderful mass of facts which he poured forth that evening? Whence came his tremendous grasp upon the principles involved? Probably he could not have told you. . . . When I mentioned this to Lewes, while recalling the discussion on the cerebellum, he exclaimed: 'Oh, you can't account for it! It's his genius. Spencer has greater instinctive power of observation and assimilation than any man since Shakespeare, and he is like Shakespeare for hitting the bull's-eye every time he fires. As for Darwin and Huxley, we can follow their intellectual processes, but Spencer is above and beyond all; he is inspired!'"

The various spellings of Shakespeare's name, by himself and others, were nothing uncommon at the time: Sir Walter Raleigh was one of the most accomplished men of his time, yet spelled his name Rauley, Rawleyghe, Ralegh, and other ways. Shakespeare's father and mother came from families in eminently respectable circumstances. There is no more difficulty in accounting for his knowledge than in accounting for Jonson's learning; and, reasoning on the Bacon-Shakespeare line, we should conclude that Bacon wrote Jonson's plays also, which indeed "a doctor in Michigan, named Owen," has already published a pamphlet to prove. In addition to his native powers, Shakespeare had the advantage of intercourse with many illustrious men. Says Dr. Fiske:

"In arguing about what Shakespeare 'must have' or 'could not have' known, we must not forget that at no time or place since history began has human thought fermented more briskly than in London while he was living there. The age of Drake and Raleigh was an age of efflorescence in dramatic poetry, such as had not been seen in the twenty centuries since Euripides died. Among Shakespeare's fellow craftsmen were writers of such great and varied endowments as Chapman, Marlowe, Greene, Nash, Peele, Marston, Dekker, Webster, and Cyril Tourneur. During his earlier years in London Richard Hooker was master of the Middle Temple, and there a little later Ford and Beaumont were studying. The erudite Camden was master of Westminster School; among the lights of the age for legal learning were Edward Coke and Francis Bacon; at the same time, one might have met in London the learned architect Inigo Jones and the learned poet John Donne, both of them excellent classical scholars; there one would have found the divine poet Edmund Spenser, just come over from Ireland to see to the publication of his 'Faerie Queene'; not long afterward came John Fletcher from Cambridge, and the acute philosopher Edward Herbert from Oxford; and one and all might listen to the incomparable table-talk of that giant of scholarship, John Selden. The delights of the Mermaid Tavern, where these rare wits were wont to assemble, still live in tradition. As Keats says:

> 'Souls of poets dead and gone,
> What Elysium have ye known,
> Happy field or mossy cavern,
> Choicer than the Mermaid Tavern?'

It has always been believed that this place was one of Shakespeare's favorite haunts. By common consent of scholars it has been accepted as the scene of those contests of wit between Shakespeare and Jonson of which Fuller tells us when he compares Jonson to a Spanish galleon, built high with learning, but slow in movement, while he likens Shakespeare to an English cruiser, less heavily weighted, but apt for victory because of its nimbleness—the same kind of contrast by the way, as that which occurred to Milton."

While it can not be demonstrated by documentary proof that Shakespeare ever went to the Mermaid, the probabilities are all in favor of that assumption. Before his thirtieth year he was well known in London—then a city of 150,000 to 200,000 population—as a writer of plays and manager of a prominent theater. At the age of thirty-four he was recognized by his contemporaries, Jonson, Milton, Spenser (in "Colin Clout's Come Home Again"), Francis Meres (in "Palladis Tamia"), as "one of the chief glories of English literature," and "ranked by critical scholars by the side of the greatest names of antiquity." The probability is strong that he was one of those who formed the brilliant groups at the Mermaid, and from his intercourse there with the brightest minds of his time, such legal, classical, and historical lore as he required could readily be picked up in conversation.

Dr. Fiske spends some time also upon Francis Bacon. Pope's characterization of him as "the wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind," we are told, may be disputed in all three specifications. Macaulay's essay, in which Bacon's mind is described as "the most exquisitely constructed intellect that has ever been

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bestowed on any of the children of men" is, we are further told, "as false in its fundamental conception as it is inaccurate in its details." Stanley Jevons has "completely exploded" the notion that Bacon inaugurated the method by which modern discoveries in physical science have been made, that honor belonging of right to Newton. Bacon had a mind eminently sagacious and fertile in suggestions, but without the supreme creative faculty. He and Shakespeare were antipodal one to the other. Bacon's learning would not have allowed him to introduce clocks into the Rome of Julius Cæsar, pistols into the age of Henry IV., or cannon into the age of King John. He would not have made Hector quote Aristotle nor Hamlet study at the University of Wittenberg, founded five hundred years later. Bacon is a highly subjective writer, always self-conscious; Shakespeare is just the reverse. Both were rapacious purloiners, and many similarities between their expressions and ideas may be accounted for by their purloining from common sources.

As to the origin of the Bacon-Shakespeare theory, Dr. Fiske has this to say:

"What was it that first unlocked the sluice-gates, and poured forth such a deluge of foolishness upon a sorely suffering world? It will hardly do to lay the blame upon poor Delia Bacon. Her suggestions would have borne no fruit had they not found a public, albeit a narrow one, in some degree prepared for them. Who, then, prepared the soil for the seeds of this idiocy to take root? Who but the race of fond and foolish Shakespeare commentators, with their absurd claims for their idol? During the eighteenth century Shakespeare was generally underrated. Voltaire wondered how a nation that possessed such a noble tragedy as Addison's 'Cato' could endure such plays as 'Hamlet' and 'Othello.' In the days of Scott and Burns a reaction set in; and Shakespeare-worship reached its height when the Germans took it up, and, not satisfied with calling him the prince of poets, began to discover in his works all sorts of hidden philosophy and impossible knowledge. Of the average German mind Lowell good-naturedly says that 'it finds its keenest pleasure in divining a profound significance in the most trifling things, and the number of mare's nests that have been stared into by the German *Gelehrter* through his spectacles passes calculation' (Literary Essays, ii. 163). . . . Sooner or later the question was sure to arise, Where did your Stratford boy get all this abstruse scientific knowledge? The keynote was perhaps first sounded by August von Schlegel, who persuaded himself that Shakespeare had mastered 'all the things and relations of this world,' and then went on to declare that the accepted account of his life must be a mere fable. Thus we reach the point from which Delia Bacon started."

USE OF THE MASK ON THE ANCIENT STAGE.

MOST of us know that on the ancient stage the actors wore masks, and the custom seems to us moderns more or less ridiculous. That it had a logical basis is shown in an article on the subject in *Cosmos* (Paris, September 11), which contains among other interesting matter the results of actual experiments in theaters with models of ancient masks—experiments that prove conclusively that such masks increased the power of the voice. We translate below a large part of this article, as follows:

TRAGIC MASK AND GROTESQUE MASK (FOWNLEY GALLERY).

"The actor on the stage finds it necessary to modify not only his costume but, in a measure, the very features of his countenance, to place them in harmony with the part that he plays. The use of paints, wigs, and false beards in the theater must be very old. Æschylus, so Horace says, introduced the use of the mask. What was its object? Much has been written on the subject, and there are two principal opinions. Either the mask was a speaking-trumpet or it was a conventional disguise. The mask, says M. Albert Lambert, was only a device to catch the mind of the crowd by a striking image; and to make such a violent convention admissible to the skeptics of the time . . . the reason was given that the mask was indispensable to make the voice carry. . . .

VARIOUS MASKS, AFTER AN ANCIENT MANUSCRIPT IN THE BIBLIOTHÈQUE ROYALE.

"There were two kinds of masks: the mask that was placed only in front of the face, and that which enclosed the entire head of the actor.

"Women did not play on the stage, their parts being taken by men wearing a special form of mask, whose mouth-opening was much smaller than usual.

"The masks not only reproduced the features of the face, but also the beard, the hair, the ears, and even the ornaments worn by women in their hair; often they imitated the whole head.

"The nature of dramatic pieces, according to the type of mask necessitated, caused a classification of the latter into three kinds, tragic masks, comic masks, and satiric masks.

"Each of these three categories was marked by typical forms. In the first the figures represented gods, heroes, historic, legendary, or mythologic persons, and were immovable; they were always given the same attributes, so that they could be recognized at first sight. Thus, the Furies always had their serpents, Acteon his stag's horns, Argus his hundred eyes. . . . . .

"They could not have been made of very lasting material, for not one of them has come down to our day. Some authors say they were made of bark; others suppose them to have been made of fiber filled with plaster. They were made carefully and to measure. M. Albert Lambert recalls the embarrassment of Aristophanes, who could not find a mask-maker that was willing to make him a representation of Cleon the demagog for his satire of 'The Knights,' and found himself forced to appear on the stage without a mask.

"Many authors have remarked that the Greek theaters were so perfect acoustically that the employment of artificial aids to the voice would be useless in them. Dr. Castex in particular . . . has made a study of the question."

From his personal observations in ancient theaters, and from actual experiment made with well-known singers and actors wearing models of ancient masks made from authentic representations on monuments, etc., this expert comes to the following conclusions:

"With the antique mask the voice carries better. I mean by this that it penetrates to a greater distance. It seems also to gain in intensity. I asked the artist to speak an unfamiliar phrase just low enough to be inaudible, and then to repeat it with the mask. At once several syllables could be heard.

"The voice gains in clearness. The timbre (I use the word here in its artistic sense), that is to say, the sonority, is increased; now here are the two requisite qualities for hearing the voice at a distance.

"The timbre (this time I use the word in its scientific sense, meaning the quality of the tone) is not modified. It becomes neither nasal nor guttural.

"Thanks to the funnel-shaped buccal orifice, the effect is produced not only in the direction of the voice, in front of the actor, but also at the two lateral extremities of the enclosure; the more funnel-shaped it is the more the vocal effect is sensible. The mask should be exactly fitted to the lips.

"In fact, it seems to me that all the recognized qualities of the human voice are increased by the use of the mask."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

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SCIENCE.

A LONG-DISTANCE TYPEWRITER.

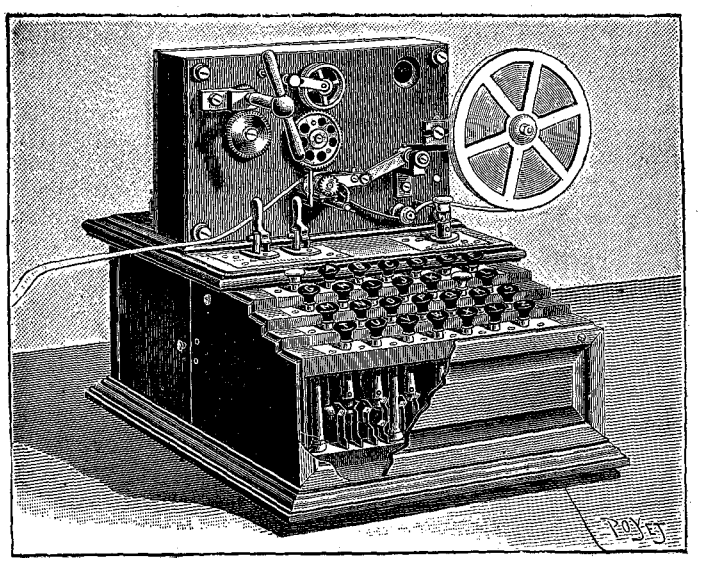
THE newly invented telescriptor, or long-distance typewriter, by which an operator at New York may typewrite manuscript in Boston, has already been alluded to in these columns. We now give an illustrated description translated from an article contributed to *La Nature* (Paris, October 30) by M. J. Laffargue. Says this writer:

"For a long time we have been looking for a simple and rapid apparatus for writing at a distance. Numerous trials have been made, and we have already described in these columns the printing-telegraph used by the Havas agency.

"M. Hoffmann has now invented a very simple piece of apparatus to which he gives the name of 'telescriptor,' and which, using a typewriter-keyboard, enables us to write at a distance. This apparatus, a description of which follows, has recently been constructed by the Société Industrielle des Telephones.

"The telescriptor is composed in principle of a typewriter furnished with electric contacts under each key, so that instantaneous currents can be sent into a line when each is depressed. These currents actuate a polarized electromagnet, seen in Fig. 2, which controls the escapement of a clockwork arrangement. On the axis of this clockwork are a brush that sweeps over a fixed current-distributor with 28 contacts, and a type-wheel. The latter is a disk on whose circumference are engraved in relief the letters of the alphabet, the digits, and various signs. It has, in all, 56 divisions, of which 4 are for letter-spaces and 4 for figure-spaces. A little paper band, for receiving the impression, passes in front of the type-wheel on a movable drum, which is placed at the end of an oscillating lever under control of a special electro-magnet.

"We can not do more here than give the general principle of the machine and indicate its applications. The telescriptor can in the first place act like a simple typewriter. Suppose two subscribers who have each a telescriptor. The calling-operator first presses down the two levers seen in Fig. 1 at the left above the keyboard; the other operator presses down only the first of the two levers. The two machines begin to work at once by the aid of the intermittent currents sent over the lines, and the clock movements start. The operator touches the keys exactly as if he

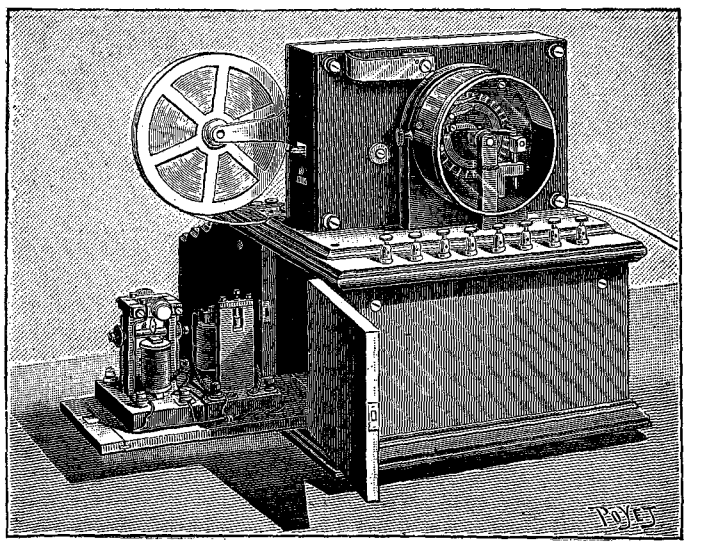


THE TELESCRIPTOR.—FRONT VIEW.

were writing on a typewriter, and at the same time a series of letters forming words are impressed on the strips of paper that unroll both under his own eyes and under those of the receiver of the message. In the telescriptor, the same letter can not be printed over itself; a single letter is printed at each impression. Besides, the strip advances by a constant and regular amount every time that a letter is printed. The letters thus can not be spaced too widely, nor can they crowd upon one another.

"The change of the receiving typewriter into a transmitter is very easily accomplished; all that is necessary is to give a special signal at the end of the communication. The first operator raises his second lever while the other depresses his, and thus the transmitting instrument becomes a receiver, and the receiver a transmitter.

"The device can then be worked like a simple telegraph; if it is left as a receiver, we shall find, on returning from an absence, the different messages that have been sent printed on the strip. It should be added that the machine can write about 120 letters a



THE TELESCRIPTOR.—REAR VIEW.

minute. The telescriptor can also be combined with the telephone; the same wire can serve for both and may be used for either telephone or telescriptor by means of a simple switch.

"The telescriptor seems fitted to render great service to industry, because it leaves a printed record of communications. The telephone is very useful and renders innumerable services; but if, for example, it is necessary to send an order involving precise and exact measurements, or if corrections are to be sent to the printers—and a whole series of similar cases may be cited—the telephone may be the cause of errors. The telescriptor gives exact indications in typewritten manuscripts, for they are controlled by the very person who gives them. The phonograph has also been utilized to give orders and dictate letters, but its advantages are not to be compared with those of the telescriptor."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

THE NOISES IN STEAM-PIPES.

THE cause of the terrible rasping, rattling, and hammering in steam-pipes, which is so annoying and often so apparently inexplicable, is thus explained in *The Industrial World:*

"In all cases the pounding in steam-pipes is caused by water, not air. Water formed by the condensation of some of the steam settles into parts of the pipes or in other parts of the steam-heating apparatus where opportunity for the formation of traps offers, and when enough of it gathers it shuts off the flow of steam. Then the steam gathers head against it, until able to push the water along partly out of its way, and a great bubble of steam rushes past into the pipe beyond, making the pipe vibrate as if struck on the outside with a hammer. The moment the bubble of steam passes, the pressure behind the water is reduced, and the water runs back, again closing the passageway. Another bubble of steam is soon forced past, and then another, and this process continues until the steam heats the pipes enough to stop the rapid condensation which first formed the obstructing pool and also evaporate and dissipate the pool itself. In particular cases a second and perhaps a third pool will form in the same place before the pipes get hot enough to stop such action. In these cases the pounding continues for a time, then stops, then begins, stops, and then pounds again before the final stoppage.

"There are many cases of these collections of water, but the most prolific one is an improper alinement of the steam-pipes, by which there is left between the boiler and the radiators a sag in

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the pipe. In order to get heat from the steam the steam must circulate through the pipes to the radiators, and then return to the boiler in the form either of wet steam or water. Any spot in the whole system where the water can lodge will obstruct this circulation and cause a pounding. Where pipes are carried along laterally they should by preference have a slight rise along their whole course from the boiler and should never be allowed to get into a reverse position. They are often set wrong at first, but even if this were not done the settling of a building frequently causes a trap in them. Other traps are found at times in globe valves, where the steam has to dive down under a diaphragm to get through the valve. This can be remedied by the position of the valve so that it stands at an angle of 45° from the vertical instead of straight up. In other cases the radiators are not level, and water gathers in them and makes a trap. In a single-pipe system, where the steam is fed in and the water returns by one pipe and valve, this has been found to be caused in a number of cases by a lack of provision for the elongation of the pipes when they were heated. This expansion of the pipes will lift the end of the radiator where the pipe is attached, and make a trap at the other end.

"In double-pipe systems a radiator may be set to thumping by having the steam partly turned on while the return valve is closed, or by a leaky valve letting a little steam into the radiator while it is supposed to be out of use. Even in well-set, up systems, where there is not a decided drop-back to the pipes toward the boiler all through their course, a great thumping may result from suddenly turning a full head of steam into cold pipes and radiators. Under these circumstances so much water will be turned into the cold pipes that it will block a part of the level portions of the pipe and make a great rumpus before it can get back to the boiler and leave the pipes clear again. The remedy for this is simple—don't turn on the steam so rapidly."

MARCONI'S SYSTEM OF WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY AGAIN.

RECENT results of experiments with this system, which has been described repeatedly in these columns, are thus detailed in the *Revista Maritina*, as translated for *The Electrical Review* (London, October 8):

"A transmitter, and a receiver for controlling purposes, were set up on land, a second receiver being placed on board ship. In one experiment the ship lay at anchor; in another the ship steamed away from, or approached, the telegraphing-station on shore. The results obtained were: 1. Under favorable atmospheric conditions—*i.e.*, in the absence of electric strain in the air—messages were successfully transmitted from land to the ship in motion over a distance of 8.9 nautical miles (10.5 miles). 2. The presence of electric strain in the atmosphere made the reading of messages by the Marconi apparatus impossible. 3. It was found, also, that the intervention of mountains, islands, or headlands between the transmitter and the receiver made the reading of the messages impossible. 4. The intervention of masts or chimneys, or the like, was also found considerably to reduce the distance at which messages could be distinctly read; for example, if the receiver were fixed abaft the ship, and the ship were steaming directly toward the sending-station on shore, the distinctness of the messages was considerably reduced."

The following is an account given by the inventor himself in an interview with *The Daily Chronicle* (London):

"I sent messages from the Arsenal of San Bartolomeo to the *San Martino*, an armor-clad fighting-ship, completely armed and cruising in the open sea 12 miles distant from the fortress. My receiver was hidden in the cabin under the guns, under the engines—in fact, anywhere on board so long as the vertical wire conductor remained exposed. No matter where the receiver was, it 'ticked' out the message in due course. I used conductors 90 feet high to procure this result, and am now preparing a receiver to take a message from a distance of 40 miles. The fact of the message being sent to a vessel which was practically one mass of metal made no difference. In Rome, to communicate to houses, I had a conductor 3 feet high. For the transmission of signals across the Bristol Channel it was 100 feet high, but it is difficult to say off-hand how far the question of distance is determined by the height of the conductor. You see, I got signals to a greater distance at Spezzia with a conductor 10 feet less in height. The induction-coil used in Italy was much less powerful, as the signals were obtained by a 6-inch spark worked by a small portable battery of eight volts. This disproves the statement of certain scientists who have declared that my results have only been secured by the employment of a large amount of battery power."

The Electrical Review goes on to say:

"In *The Chronicle* interview Mr. Marconi defends his invention against the charges of want of novelty which have very freely been brought against it. He claims that he has greatly improved the Branly coherer and invented for it the electromagnetic tapper, a claim which has been questioned by Lodge. But we think there can be no doubt that Marconi is the true and first inventor of the elevated electrodes on the receiver and transmitter, and this detail appears to have contributed more to extend the possible distance of telegraphy by electric waves than anything that has been discovered since the time of Hertz and Branly. In the interview above referred to, Mr. Marconi insists on this point, saying:

"'I think, too, that my invention deserves all the protection it has secured, for what I have really discovered is this: that by bringing one pole of the transmitter and one pole of the receiver in contact with the earth, and joining the other poles of the instruments to vertical conductors of suitable height, I can send a message 12 miles with an amount of battery power that would not obtain any effect at all, even at 100 yards, if used by the Branly, Lodge, or Righi apparatus.'

"No doubt the law courts will some day be asked to settle the differences between the rival claimants for the invention of wireless telegraphy. In the mean time the heated discussions on the subject which are appearing in some of our contemporaries appear to be futile."

Of some of the conditions and limitations of the Marconi system the article in *The Review* goes on to speak as follows:

"The electromagnetic force is horizontal if the wires of the apparatus are vertical; consequently the transmission by the Marconi apparatus will not be disturbed by horizontal conductors, such as telegraph and telephone wires. But vertical conductors may cause serious disturbances in the transmission; Hertz indeed has shown that a frame of parallel wires suitably arranged in relation to the waves may stop them. If two receivers are placed at considerably different distances, the nearest receiver may absorb so much of the energy of the electric waves that it will be impossible to produce any effect on the more distant instrument. The electromagnetic waves are propagated in every direction, and if these waves encounter conductors capable of acting as receivers (and all conductors can do so to a certain extent), the transmission between the two instruments will be seriously interfered with.

"Reflectors are not likely to be successfully used with the Marconi apparatus. Hertz found that reflectors were useless with waves 7 meters [22 feet] in length, and the Marconi waves are much longer than this. Before reflectors can be successfully used, it will be necessary to reduce very considerably the length of the waves; but these reflectors will have to be very large, comparable in dimensions, in fact, with the vertical wire.

"The propagation in every direction is the principal objection to the Marconi system. Multiple reception of messages may, to a certain extent, be obviated by tuning, but it would always be easy to bring any receiver into tune by trial."

PLAGUE AND FAMINE NATURE'S CURES FOR OVERPOPULATION.

WE are told that when we feed the hungry and cure the plague-stricken in India we are interfering with nature's processes, and must not expect to succeed unless we can alter natural conditions radically—something which, in such a conservative country as India, has yet scarcely been attempted. This view of the case is set forth by the London *Hospital*, and the conclusion seems to be that the inhabitants of that country will

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continue for years to live crowded together in filth and to be stricken down at irregular periods with terrible filth diseases. Says *The Hospital:*

"We have in fact, both in regard to plague and famine, to face what is really a new difficulty in the history of such scourges. Our common humanity has led us to interfere with nature's cure for the conditions by which they are produced—a savage and inhuman cure, but one that has again proved effectual. Overpopulation and a low standard of living, a willingness to live and to marry on what will only just keep body and soul together, are at the bottom of both plague and famine. A condition in which the sum-total of a man's labor is required to provide food and raiment leaves him no opportunity of putting by for a time of want, or of giving reasonable care to his sanitary surroundings. Nature's cure for overpopulation is pestilence and famine, and as far back as history reaches we find that by these means the balance between food and population has again and again been rectified, and accumulated wealth has been divided among a lessened population. We have chosen to interfere with nature; the humane instincts which our religion has implanted in us have driven us to relieve famine, and, if possible, to hold pestilence in check, and yet, meanwhile, under the plea of not interfering with native religion and native customs, we have permitted the continuance of a condition of affairs which never could and never can go on without a periodical decimation. The problem before the ruling power is difficult, and in a sense dangerous, for its solution involves interfering with many of the prejudices and religious customs of the natives. But like other peoples, the natives can not both 'eat their cake and have it.' If they are to enjoy the protection against Eastern plagues which Western civilization tries to give them, they must in return be made to conform to Western standards of decent living. There must, then, be no hesitation in enforcing sanitary measures in India—unless, indeed, hardening our hearts and buttoning up our pockets, we let nature take her course and exact her tribute in pestilence and famine."

HOW TO SEE THE MOTION OF A GLACIER.

EVERY one knows that glaciers are great rivers of ice flowing slowly down their beds, but the flow is so slow that ordinarily it can be detected only by observations that last for months. In *Les Sciences Populaires* (Paris, October) M. A. Chalas, after telling us how this has been done in the past, describes an ingenious optical method depending on the interference of light, by which the motion, or its effects, may be actually witnessed. We translate the greater part of his article below:

"The study and observation of glaciers constitutes one of the most interesting chapters in the physics of the globe. For a very long time observers have endeavored to determine with precision the law of the descending movement of the ice. The method generally employed is well known:

"From one bank of the glacier to the other, between two pieces fixed to the rock, are planted transversely in the ice a series of

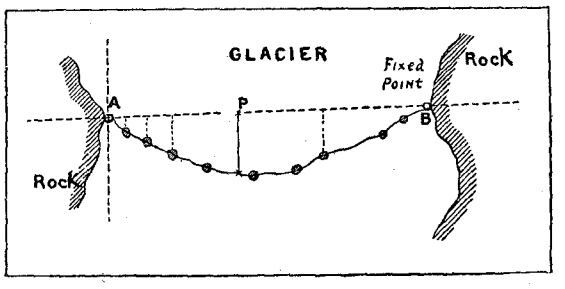

FIG. 1.

stakes in a straight line. All these wooden stakes are then in the same plane, perpendicular to the direction of the glacier.

"At the end of a certain time (several months) the position of the stakes is observed. . . .

"The curve obtained thus (Fig. 1) has generally the form shown herewith: that of an arc whose concavity is turned toward the transverse axis AB of the glacier.

"By this process, it is seen that the points situated in the middle have moved much more rapidly than those in the neighborhood of the immovable banks.

"On the Aar glacier Messrs. Agassiz and Desor measured annual displacements of 5 meters [16 feet] on the sides and about 70 meters [328 feet] at the middle.

"In the center of the Bois glacier Forbes observed displacements of 200 meters [752 feet].

"Measurements have also been made on the Mer de Glace and on various other glaciers of the first and second rank.

"These various observations have given, as may be seen, very

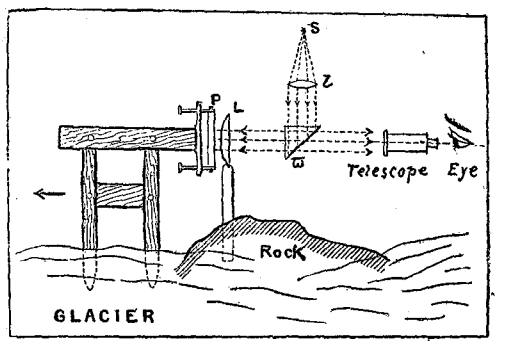

FIG. 2.

precise results, but the phenomenon of movement is very slow, which makes necessary a very long period for the observations. . . .

"It is true that the observation of the phenomenon does not necessitate the continued presence of the observer, but it requires at least two trips to the glacier. It is thus impossible for visitors and tourists to see the movement, which amounts to only a few tenths of a millimeter per hour.

"It will be well, therefore, to explain various methods that have been proposed for the observation of these small movements.

"The most delicate is that proposed by M. Fizeau, which makes use of the phenomenon known as 'Newton's rings.'

"By the aid of a lens l (Fig. 2) a bundle of parallel rays, of one-colored light, is thrown upon a small total-reflection prism w, which causes them to fall on an optical device arranged for the production of these interference-rings, and composed of a fixed plano-convex lens L, so placed that its plane face is parallel to a plane of glass P, movable parallel to itself.

"The rings may be seen by placing the eye beyond the total reflection prism, and their position is seen with the aid of points engraved on the plane surface. When the plane P moves away from the lens, the concentric rings, alternately light and dark, are seen to be displaced and approach toward the center, where they vanish; others arise at the circumference and replace the former; there is a sort of vortex of rings that moves slower or faster according to the movement given to the plane P. The number of rings that pass the points of comparison can easily be counted."

After showing by the mathematical theory of the rings that such a counting enables the speed of the plane P to be determined, and detailing the precautions to be taken in the experiment, the author goes on to say:

"If now the lens L be fixed on the bank of the glacier, on an immovable rock, the reflecting plane being fixed to a support sustained by stakes set in the ice, and if we use a one-colored source of light S, circular interference fringes will appear and will move toward the center at a rate depending on the motion of P, which is fixed to the glacier, away from the lens L, fastened to the rock.

"In other words, we shall actually see the movement of the glacier, thanks to an extreme apparent amplification of the speed of the motion observed.

"Let us take the smallest displacement observed by Messrs. Agassiz and Desor, or five meters a year. . . .

"There will disappear under these conditions thirty-six rings a minute, more than one every two seconds.

"If we take the numbers obtained by Forbes for the center of the Bois glacier, we shall obtain by this means the disappearance of more than a thousand rings a minute, or twenty a second.

"The only difficulty met with in practise is to find a fixed posi-

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tion convenient for the lens *L*. As for the mirror *P*, it may be made to move slightly [for adjustment] by means of set screws. When the support moves too far away, the stakes are taken up and reset. In any case the apparatus is very simple and easy to set up. It allows us to follow second by second the movement of the glacier, and even to observe whether its speed is constant at all hours of the day, at all seasons of the year, etc.

"It is therefore to be hoped that so simple a device as this may be put into practical use. It would be as useful for the scientist as it would be interesting and curious for the ordinary traveler, and would allow observers who are enthusiastic but pressed for time to follow for a few seconds the march of a glacier—a phenomenon which more than any other is a witness to the majestic slowness and the immovable serenity of natural forces."—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

White Specks on Finger Nails.—Dr. William Sykes writes as follows to *The British Medical Journal*, October 10: "Mr. Malcolm Morris, in his excellent little work on 'Diseases of the Skin,' writes concerning the diseases of nails: 'Sometimes white spots become developed owing to the presence of air between the lamellæ.' This may or may not be the explanation of the histology of these white spots; but I have satisfied myself by personal experiment that they are . . . caused by injury to the nail in scraping, pressing back, and cutting the skin over the lunula at its base. Let any one who has at times these white specks give his nails a thorough dressing, pressing back the superfluous skin at the base, scraping its remains away, and when necessary cutting it off. In a few days he will notice white specks and patches, of larger or smaller size, on some of his nails. As the nails grow these grow with them, advancing gradually to the center of the nail, then past it, coming finally to its free edge, and being cut off in the ordinary course of nail-shortening. Let the same observer now permit his nails to remain for a month or two untouched at their bases, merely being cut short at their free extremities by way of necessary dressing, and he will perceive that they are quite speckless except for the old spots, and that they remain so as long as he does not meddle with the skin over the lunula at their bases. In fact, he can produce the presence or absence of these spots at his will. It is quite possible that Mr. Malcolm Morris may be correct in attributing the specks to air between the lamellæ. . . . At the same time, I can not help suspecting—tho I advance this view with diffidence—that they are rather of the nature of scar tissue, and analogous to the corneal opacities which follow injury or ulceration."

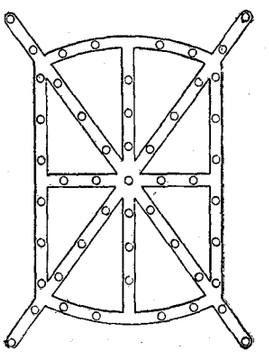
Growing Size of Ocean Steamers.—"Even more noteworthy than the recent attempts to make the transatlantic journey at high speed," says *The Railway and Engineering Review*, "is the evident decision of the steamship companies that, other things being equal, it pays to build steamers of enormous size. Excepting the White Star ship *Oceanic*, which is building, the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* is the largest vessel since the *Great Eastern*. The older vessels, which ranged from 300 to 400 feet in length, are completely outclassed, and it is somewhat amusing now to remember that their builders were criticized at the time for making their boats too large. The vessels have grown steadily with each advance in shipbuilding until the company which formerly held 560 feet to be the extreme size of its crack boats planned a vessel of 620 feet. The new German ship exceeds this limit, her dimensions being 649 feet over all by 66 feet beam. A good idea of the tendency to build immense vessels may be gained from the following table, in which the largest new steamers of leading lines are compared with the famous *Great Eastern*:

Names	Tonnage.	Horse-power	Lgth.	Beam.	Depth.
Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse	14,000	28,000	649	66	40
Kaiser Friedrich	12,500	24,000	599	63.11½	37.9¾
Oceanic	17,000	.....	704	70	42
Lucania	12,950	30,000	622	65	43
St. Louis	11,629	20,000	534	63	43
La Touraine	9,778	13,000	520	56	34
Fürst Bismarck	8,250	16,400	500	57	34
City of Rome	8,144	11,500	560	52	37
Teutonic	9,984	18,500	556	58	39
Great Eastern	18,015	8,000	692	82.2	58

"And the next marine monster, the *Oceanic*, when completed, will be fifty feet longer than the *Kaiser Wilhelm* and twelve feet longer than the *Great Eastern*. It may well be a matter of wonder where this growth of the ocean leviathan is going to stop. Presumably the limit of size compatible with a maximum speed has nearly been reached. If vessels are to keep increasing in size at the rate of their growth during the last ten years, they must soon become too unwieldy to be handled in the ordinary course of commerce."

Changeable Electric Letters.—The changeable "Crandall" letters used by some of the New York journals for bulletins in the recent election are thus described in *The Electrical World*:

"The letters consist of an arrangement of fifty-one lamps, so arranged that by lighting different combinations of the fifty-one lamps the various letters of the alphabet can be formed. The lights are fed in nineteen groups over a nineteen-wire cable, connecting them to nineteen cross bars on a keyboard. The depression of any one key of the keyboard closes the proper groups for the representation in light of the letter corresponding to that key. The keyboard is ingeniously fitted with an electromagnet so arranged that when any one key is depressed it is held down until the magnet circuit is opened. The words are first set by the depression of the proper keys on the various keyboards, one for each letter, after which the main switch is closed. Arcing at the keyboard contacts is prevented by opening the main switch before the auxiliary switch controlling the magnets is opened. In the sign erected on Madison Square there were thirty-six letters and six figures, each letter and figure being approximately 3 x 4 feet in size. The whole sign was some 78 feet long by 35 feet in height. The returns were more readily announced by this sign than by any other means heretofore devised, the letters being legible at a distance of over one half a mile."



ARRANGEMENT OF LAMPS IN "CRANDALL" LETTERS.

SCIENCE BREVITIES.

DISCUSSING American competition in England, *Engineering*, London, says: "It is not only in rails that the war of competition, which, from a pessimistic point of view, may gradually develop into a war of extermination, is now raging. We appear to be growing more and more dependent on American machine tool-makers; indeed, it is not an exaggeration to say that during the now vanishing period of depression in the United States, many once prosperous engineers' works must have been closed but for the never-failing support of Europe. We are dependent on the United States to build the elevators for the Central London Railway; and we have to look to the other side of the Atlantic for the electrical plant with which the traffic is to be worked. It is notorious that we are unable properly to equip an electrically worked tramway, and that until our manufacturers take the trouble to learn how, the large and increasing contracts for this new industry must be taken by Americans. Now that so many employers of labor are suffering from enforced idleness by a ruinous strike, they may find time to learn why we, who still blindly call ourselves the leading industrial nation of the world, are content to close our eyes to what is going on,"

THE MICROMOTOSCOPE.—"This invention," says *The Electrical Age*, "is a kinetoscope for photographing cell life in motion, as seen in the microscopic field. The pictures are taken by the gelatin film at from 5,000 to 15,000 magnifications, and at the rate of from 1,600 to 3,500 per minute. The images being magnified thousands of times when projected upon a screen, the views of some of the families of microbes are very realistic. It has been learned that some of them act as if intelligent. The photographs of the blood in circulation in the thinnest part of the ears and webs of the fingers, showing its capillary and arterial motion and the changes going on in the white cells, are of great interest. They indicate something of the nature of life and disease. The stream of circulating human blood is so swift that the eye can not keep pace with it, and the changes in the white blood cells are correspondingly rapid. Some of the pictures show a white cell on the fast-moving stream, like a white cap on the sea, constantly changing its shape. It throws out or takes in its arms like an octopus, seizing the microbes in its path. In disease this movement of the arms takes place with much less energy than in health. These pictures can not fail to be of great value in the study of diseases. The micromotoscope will greatly aid in the investigation of phenomena of action of ameboid life in water."

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THE RELIGIOUS WORLD.

A BUDDHISTIC MASS.

AT the close of the recent International Congress of Orientalists, held in Paris, the members of the convention were invited to be present at a unique religious service, which has probably never before been celebrated in the Occident. This was a Buddhistic mass, held in the famous Musée Guimet, the conduct of which is described by the *Figaro* substantially as follows:

The library-room, in which the services took place, was most profusely decorated with chrysanthemums, roses, orchids, etc., and three hundred and more Parisian gentlemen and ladies took part in the service. The draperies were all of an orange-yellow color. The altar was of no special architectural fashion, but only a plain table upon which was erected a pyramid of steps, each step bearing a torch. In all there were seven hundred and thirty of these, symbolizing the seven hundred and thirty lights of the exalted wisdom found in the 84,000 doctrines of the Buddhistic faith. To the point of the pyramid was attached a standard or flag in golden, pink, white, red, and blue colors, the whole surrounded by flowers and leaves. The sweet savor of the flowers, mingled with incense, filled the hall. In the room in front of the library, M. Guimet instructed his audience in the laws of Buddhism, which were listened to with rapt attention. In the audience are found representatives of every type of religious thought. Willingly, it seems, they yield to the instructions, that he who would take part in the Buddhistic worship must, according to the rite of that worship, be of pure heart, and his body must know nothing of the use of alcoholic drinks. His spirit must occupy itself with good, gentle, and pure thoughts. The faithful must cleanse themselves in water perfumed with saffron, and the hands that are to bring flowers to the altar acceptable to God must be without blemish.

After these preliminary instructions, the doors to the library are opened, and with a reverent step the assembly enters the shrine. In two processions they slowly and in deep silence approach the altar. Every participant, in accordance with orders given, carries a flower in his hand, and lays it down upon a snow-white cloth which is placed before the seven hundred and thirty torches. The unbelievers have found places in the galleries, where they can see the interesting ceremony but are not allowed to take part in it.

At eleven o'clock the mass begins. Among those actively participating is M. Clemenceau, the statesman and parliamentarian. He stands so near the altar that the priest with his yellow gown touches him. Then are found present also Prince Roland Bonaparte, MM. Solomon Reinach, Leon de Rosny, Roger Marx, the general secretary of the Seine Department, university professors, members of the Orientalist Congress, etc.

An excited whispering is heard through the audience and the officiating priest, Anagorica Dharmapala, enters. He is a Singalese of colorless complexion, tall, with fine and aristocratic movements. He moves his head back and forth, bends his thighs, moves his arms gracefully. He wears a large yellow toga, which almost covers his person, and presses to his breast a sacred relic of the god Buddha. Carefully he places this upon the altar, turns then to the other worshipers, and in a chanting voice, in good English, he speaks as follows, his words being translated into French by the assistant conservator of the Museum, M. de Milloni:

"Oh, that I could be as pure as a scented rose! This noble flower withers, and thus all things pass away. I dedicate this flower to the Lord of the world, of eternal truth, and the Most Holy of beings.

"I vow not to slay any living creature.

"I vow not to take my neighbor's goods.

"I vow not to give myself up to sensual pleasures.

"I vow not to drink any intoxicants."

After this prayer the priest Dharmapala pronounces a panegyric on the blessings of the Buddhistic religion, which he says is 2,600 years old. While he is speaking his eyes are constantly directed to the flower and are not fixed on his audience.

After the address is completed the ceremony of the mass begins. The Anagorica takes a long yellow ribbon wrapped around a staff. He gives one end to his neighbor M. Clemenceau, who has all along shown a very reverent attitude. Then the silken ribbon passes from hand to hand, encircling the faithful, until it again reaches the priest, who fastens it behind the image of Buddha. Then comes a slow chanting song. Dharmapala is singing the praises of Buddha. The ceremony itself is now over. The yellow ribbon is cut into small pieces, and each participant takes a piece home with him as beneficial fetish. *Ite missa est*, says the Anagorica, in the sacred language of the Pali, and the audience is dismissed.

MR. TERRELL AND THE SULTAN.

THE religious papers generally are not disposed to accept with good grace a version which ex-Minister Terrell gives in the November *Century* of the relations existing between the Sultan of Turkey and his Armenian subjects. Neither do they think that Mr. Terrell succeeds in showing that the chief responsibility for the massacres in Armenia rests upon the Armenian revolutionists, and not upon the Turkish ruler. Mr. Terrell's article in *The Century* is a brief one, and consists chiefly of an account of an interview with the Sultan at a banquet in which the former speaks of the high esteem in which he holds his Armenian subjects generally. In evidence of this, the Sultan points to the large number of Armenians whom he has appointed to high and lucrative positions under his Government. Mr. Terrell supplements this information with a foot-note giving the names and salaries of about 108 Armenian office-holders. He also gives his impression of the Sultan as a man of courtly manners and kindly disposition, a man to whom the epithet a "great assassin" can not be justly applied.

Mr. Terrell's article is made the subject of an editorial in *The Congregationalist*, in which it says:

"One's first thought after reading the article is one of congratulation that Mr. Terrell is an *ex*-minister. The second is that, admitting as true all that Mr. Terrell says about the ability of the Sultan and his engaging personality—and there is no reason to doubt it—then all the more heinous become his deeds. The third thought is that, admitting as true all that the Sultan declares respecting the ingratitude of the Armenians, the fact remains in all its grewsome horror that thousands of innocent men, women, and children have been murdered by his orders in an endeavor to punish a few revolutionists.

"What if it be true that the Turkish civil list has on it the names of many Armenians, some of them holding high positions and all of them drawing a total annual sum of nearly $60,000? A sovereign is merely clever who summons to his aid representatives of the most astute race within his realm; and there is no reason to believe that the Sultan is not clever, or that certain Armenians do not care more for the loaves and fishes of patronage than for anything else.

"Sultan Abdul Hamid must make a more convincing plea than this if he expects Christendom to change its opinion of him as a moral monstrosity."

The Examiner (Baptist, New York) thus refers to the same article:

"He attempts to disprove the stories of cruelty and injustice to the Armenians by declaring them the aggressors—a well-worn assumption, often exploded—and lays special emphasis on his employment of a large number of Armenians in the government service as proof of his amiable disposition toward that hapless people. This will not do. A monarch who has permitted, if he did not directly order, the slaughter of thousands of his helpless, unarmed subjects, men, women, and children, can not escape the infamy of his misdeeds by showing that he is employing a few of their compatriots at handsome salaries. Mr. Terrell's ill-timed eulogy of this inhuman monster shows that he, too, has fallen under the spell of his smooth diplomacy."

On the same point *The Watchman* (Baptist, Boston) has this observation:

"No well-informed person doubts that Abdul Hamid is an

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exceedingly able and persuasive diplomatist, who has agreeable manners and a cultivated taste, but these qualities may coexist with ruthless cruelty. We fail to see that Mr. Terrell's eulogy does anything to mitigate the undoubted facts of Abdul Hamid's reign. Mr. Terrell's article leaves the unpleasant impression that he has been hoodwinked."

Mr. Terrell's defense of the Sultan is brought under review by Rev. Dr. Cyrus Hamlin in the columns of *The Independent*. Dr. Hamlin was for many years president of Roberts College, Constantinople, and is generally regarded as one of the highest living authorities on Turkey and the Turks. Dr. Hamlin rehearses briefly the history of the Armenian massacres, and says that the accusation of rebellion as a pretext for these atrocities is absurd. He says:

"Who are the rebels? Two and a half million of loyal, unarmed people. A leading Turkish newspaper, the *Terjiman Hakikat*, of October 30, 1896, printed at Constantinople, under the eye of the censor, testifies that this people has always been quiet and loyal for 600 years; that it is foreign interference that has changed their spirit.

"The Sultan has an army of 250,000 trained soldiers and 'has one million magazine rifles, and has ordered a million more.' Yet he has been so frightened by the threats of these poor peasants, mechanics, and traders, that he has slaughtered 100,000, often with the most horrible torture!"

Dr. Hamlin concludes his article with the following:

"Our excellent ex-Minister, Judge Terrell, deserves our pity and commiseration. As a diplomat, he must receive as truth whatever the infallible Calif affirmed. He knew that it was really false, but diplomatically true. The world was full of the horrors at Sassoon; but the Sultan denied them, and our ex-Minister could not report them to Washington.

"During all his official residence, American property was, every few days, destroyed; and no indemnity was paid, except in one solitary case. No other nation has ever submitted to that. Even little Greece, before this disastrous war, had a navy that made the Turks respect her rights. We have lost all respect; and we await with interest the results of our present mission. It is hard to recover what has once been lost!

"The note containing the names of 108 Armenian employees in the Sultan's service is of little worth. Only one has a high salary, of a little more than $13,000. The rest average about $450. And as some have $1,000 or more, the rest sink proportionately low. One poor Armenian cook has 80 piasters per month—$3.55!

"It is painful to Americans that, in all this tragedy and suffering brought upon an innocent and friendless people, our country's voice, through its Minister, was never heard in their defense; but only in defense of the 'Great Assassin,' and in frantic efforts to keep him from assassinating Americans."

CELEBRATING THE WESTMINSTER STANDARDS.

IN accordance with the recommendation of their General Assemblies, North and South, the Presbyterian churches throughout the country have recently been celebrating the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the completion of the Westminster Standards. In an editorial commenting on this celebration *The Christian Advocate* (Methodist Episcopal, New York) says:

"Neither the Confession, the Catechisms, nor the Standards are accepted literally by modern Presbyterians, and the churches would be utterly broken to pieces if they were made a condition of membership. While various attempts have been made to revise, and these have failed, it has been noticeable that no speaker opposing revision has declared his allegiance to the whole of them. As compared with sentiment, even in Scotland, the celebration will emphasize the fact of a most wondrous change. Less than one hundred years ago Presbyterian preaching was doctrinal, uncompromising, and the awful doctrine of reprobation was boldly avowed and forced upon the understandings of men; and a refusal to accept it was considered an outbreak of the total depravity of the human heart.

"To-day one may travel for years from Calvinistic church to Calvinistic church without hearing, either in city or country, one discourse, that has been composed within thirty years, which could be called an uncompromising indorsement of the statements of these Standards. Nevertheless, there is abundant material for impressive addresses on such an occasion, and the history of Presbyterianism has been glorious in every field in which a church can effect the development of civilization, even tho a renaissance of the Standards is impossible."

In a brief note, *Christian Work* (undenominational) has this comment to make on the same subject:

"The very quiet manner in which the two hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the completion of the Westminster Confession has been celebrated in several localities is as significant as the mere fact of the commemoration itself. In fact, it emphasizes more its historic than its religious aspect. And then it is undeniable that the Confession has ceased to be preached from the pulpits of the country as it once was two and a half centuries ago. Then what has been called 'the Pauline theology' dominated all Protestant Christianity. But the Episcopal Church has given it up, while the Methodists, who went out from that body, never had it. This may not be subject for deep regret so long as a life-saving Gospel is preached."

DEFENDING THE VERACITY OF THE HEXATEUCH.

NOW that even the German critics are beginning to give us back one Homer, one Iliad, and a Trojan war, the time has come, Dr. S. C. Bartlett, ex-president of Dartmouth College, thinks, to say something for Moses and Joshua. He has accordingly put forth a volume of 400 pages on "The Veracity of the Hexateuch," in which, with a wealth of detail and innumerable foot-notes and a considerable appendix, he defends the biblical as against the modern or critical theory of the first six books of the Bible. What he considers at stake in the controversy is not simply the exactness of the Old Testament in minor points, but its fundamental veracity from the beginning; and not only this, but the attack on the truthfulness of the Hexateuch is a flank movement on the Gospels and the Epistles. The whole Bible is, therefore, in Dr. Bartlett's mind, at stake in the controversy.

The method of defense followed by him is, beginning with Joshua and following the stream of events back to its beginning, to compare the details given with the results of recent investigation, and to show that the account has all the ear-marks of a narrative from close and personal knowledge. The questions concerning the identity of the writers and the dates of their writing are not of prime importance. Is the narrative itself truthful or fanciful? That is the important thing to be ascertained.

In taking up the book of Joshua, Dr. Bartlett groups his facts and inferences under nine heads. The course of his argument here fairly illustrates that of the whole book. 1. He maintains that it is unreasonable to presume that a man of Joshua's stamp, coming from a land where writing was a "mania" to another land where it pervaded the whole region, should live on, twenty-five years after the events recorded, and never provide for any record. 2. The proximity of the date of writing to the events is shown by many incidental touches and by certain monuments remaining to this day. 3. The minuteness of the narrative marks its contemporaneous origin. This minuteness is especially evident in the account of the spies; of the crossing over Jordan; of the capture of Jericho; of various of the battles. 4. The existence of memorial names and landmarks commemorative of the events recorded is evidence of importance. 5. The minute and exhaustive description of the land in the conquest—the list of 31 kings, the list of 300 towns and cities (many definitely located to-day). 6. The natural portrayal of the character of Joshua himself—as much beyond the invention of later Judaism as it

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was above the level of his own time. 7. The confirmation found in newly discovered documents, such as the tablet found at Tel-el-Hesy in Palestine, the 320 tablets found at Tel-el-Amarna in Egypt, proving that the art of writing, in a very elaborate form, was prevalent in Joshua's time not only in Egypt and Arabia, but in Palestine. 8. Confirmation, from both Palestinian and Egyptian sources of the account of Joseph's burial. 9. The many references in the subsequent books of the Old Testament to the facts given in the book of Joshua as unquestionably true.

We can not follow the train of argument pursued by Dr. Bartlett in defense of the other books of the Hexateuch. A few extracts showing his attitude in regard to some of the miracles will be of interest. On the crossing of the Red Sea he has this to say:

"Extensive shoals extend far out in a southeasterly direction, and a long, narrow sand-bank reaches toward them from the eastern shore, being at low tide a small channel some 780 feet wide and from three and half to five and a half feet deep. But at high tide the width is about three miles, and the elaborate map of the Suez Canal Company gives the difference between the highest and lowest known seas as *ten feet and seven inches*. Here are the conditions for the safe crossing of the Israelites and the drowning of the Egyptians. The statement of the Scripture narrative that the Lord 'caused the sea to go back by a strong east wind all night' conforms to the fact mentioned by the travelers Wellsted, Schubert, and Tischendorf—namely, the great effect produced on the height of the waters by a long-continued northeast or southeast wind in connection with the tide. . . . . .

"Dr. Robinson makes a computation to show the feasibility of the passage of two millions, moving at the rate of only two miles an hour, within the allotted time; a dry space of half a mile or more would admit a thousand persons abreast, and a column two thousand in depth, two miles or more from front to rear; this would require an hour for the entire column to enter the channel, and two hours more to move over the distance of three or four miles, making, on this last supposition, two hours and a half in all. It may be added that if, on account of the flocks and herds, we suppose the time to be doubled, the interval between sunset and sunrise in April, being about twelve hours, would still allow ample time for the safe passage of Israel, and, when the waters were driven back in full volume, for the destruction of the pursuing host. It would undoubtedly be a difficult movement to arrange and execute with such a great company as the Israelites, but a Moses or a Napoleon would be capable of effecting it."

The fact that the Deluge took place is, we are told, beyond rational dispute. The tradition concerning it has been found by Richard Andrée in not less than 87 widely scattered tribes or races, 47 of them on the American continent. The similarity between the Hebrew account and the newly discovered Babylonian account indicates, not that the former was derived from the latter, but *vice versa:* while the Hebrew account "could easily have degenerated in transmission into the incongruities and impossibilities of the Babylonian, it is not readily supposable that the latter could have been rectified and elevated into the dignity and consistency of the former." The flood was "universal," not for the entire earth, but for the earth as inhabited. This view is argued at some length, and removes the objection that the Ark could not have contained a pair of each of the 366,000 different species now known to have existed on the earth. To cover the inhabited earth, the flood may not have had to involve a greater area than Palestine, where five millions could have found room to live. Nor is it likely that it was caused by the rain, but by the subsidence (followed by the reelevation) of the land, and the rushing in of the ocean—such a subsidence as geologists record in many parts of the earth, Dr. Bartlett devoting a number of pages to quotations from geologists on this point.

Dr. Bartlett lays much stress on the minute directions for the construction and care of the tabernacle. We will close with a quotation on this subject:

"Now as an actual record of a transaction of the times, a transaction of sacred and central significance to the chosen people, this singular minuteness and voluminousness of detail is perfectly accounted for; but as an alleged fabrication of after-ages in regard to a fictitious affair a thousand years obsolete, it involves the supposition of a stolid and aimless industry and a laborious and superfluous trifling not credible in priest or layman.

"This is not all. Such a specification of details involves an amount of accurate knowledge of historic facts not supposable, yes, not possible, in any late writer of fiction. In fact, in the earlier part of the present century such scholars, not merely as von Bohlen and Vater, but even De Wette, could declare that the construction of the tabernacle and the priest's garments implied a cultivation of the arts and an abundance of costly materials which we could not expect of the Israelites when they left Egypt, and that whole description of the tabernacle therefore belongs, not to history, but to fiction. This bold statement now shows the impossibility of its being a fiction. It was in their day necessary even to argue the case with the most learned men that the art of writing was practised so early as the exodus. It is undoubtedly safe to say that from before the time of Ezra the priest till well on in the present century no human being could have ventured on such a detailed account of the materials and processes without blundering at every turn." . . . . . .

"It remained for the explorers *of the present century* to find ample evidence of all this skill prevailing in Egypt, at and long before the time of the exodus. The very finest of fine linen has been found there. Spinning and weaving by hand is delineated in the paintings, and bright colors were employed. The whole process of working gold is delineated in the tombs at Beni Hassan as early as the twelfth dynasty; goldsmiths are often mentioned, and even 'the chief goldsmith to the king. . . . . .

"Now for any writer in after-ages, eight hundred or a thousand years later, to pass safely through all these liabilities to mistake, snares, and pitfalls at every step, maintaining his accuracy even in the minutest points of difference between the lands and the ages and the circumstances, and with no collection of antiquarian books or museum to guide him, there can be no hesitation in saying is absolutely out of the question."

THE CROSS A RELIGIOUS SYMBOL BEFORE CHRIST.

WE are told by Lady Cook (*née* Tennie Claflin) that the cross as a religious symbol is far older than Christianity, and is still used in pagan religions. She writes in *The American Antiquarian* (August), and begins by reviving the following quotation from a writer in *The Edinburgh Review* nearly thirty years ago:

"From the dawn of organized paganism [said *The Edinburgh Review* writer] in the Eastern world, to the final establishment of Christianity in the Western, the cross was undoubtedly one of the commonest and most sacred of symbolical monuments, and, to a remarkable extent, it is so still in almost every land where that of Calvary is unrecognized or unknown. Apart from any distinctions of social or intellectual superiority of caste, color, nationality, or location in either hemisphere, it appears to have been the aboriginal possession of every people in antiquity; the elastic girdle, so to say, which embraced the most widely separated heathen communities; the most significant token of a universal brotherhood; the principal point of contact in every system of pagan mythology. That mighty maze, but not without a plan, to which all the families of mankind were severally and irresistibly drawn, and by which their common descent was emphatically expressed, or by means of which each and all preserved, amid every vicissitude of fortune, a knowledge of the primeval happiness and dignity of their species. Where authentic history is silent on the subject, the material relics of the past and long since forgotten races are not wanting to confirm and strengthen this superstition. Diversified forms of the symbol are delineated more or less artistically, according to the progress achieved in civilization at the period, on the ruined walls of temples and palaces, on natural rocks and sepulchral galleries, on the hoariest monoliths and the rudest statuary; on coins, medals, and vases of every description; and, in not a few instances, are preserved in

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the architectural proportions of subterranean structures, of tumuli as well as fanes. The extraordinary sanctity attaching to the symbol, in every age and under every variety of circumstance, justified any expenditure incurred in its fabrication or embellishment; hence the most persistent labor, the most consummate ingenuity were lavished upon it."

What then, the writer goes on to ask, was the original meaning of this symbol, or symbols, which has been the warp into which all the threads of every religion have been woven? She answers as follows:

"In order to solve this question, a multitude of facts are to be considered, all pointing to the same conclusion, no matter how grossly exhibited or how mystically disguised.

"It is the sign of generation whether divine or human, the emblem of the ever-vigorous fecundity of nature, and therefore of the life that is and that which is to come. It denotes the universal vivifying power, sometimes associated with the most obscene rites, at others refined into a spiritual regeneration, and thus typifying a future immortality and a state of never-ending bliss. It was consequently adapted to all sorts and conditions of men, and became as universal as life itself. . . . . .

"And when in the fulness of time Christianity made its appearance and developed orders and hierarchies, it incorporated within itself almost every feature of paganism, including the supreme Phallic symbol, the cross. Erotic Christianity worships the divine Child, adores Mary His mother, and practically gives the Supreme Deity an inferior place. Christ's wounds are dwelt upon in almost every hymn with perfervid ecstasy, and the Cross of Calvary is the foundation of faith and hope. At all points our religion is lineally descended from the older and most ancient. We have our Tree of Life, our Sun of Righteousness (uprightness), our Cross of Salvation, and the hope of an after-life. We have also a bitter aversion to the 'old serpent' and 'all his works,' altho we retain many of the latter in our rights and ceremonies. The cardinal points of superstition have varied, and mankind have boxed its compass, so that at length they seem returning to their old love: the religion of humanity and the worship of nature."

GOING BACK TO CHRIST.

A NEW and broad arena for the discussion of the theological questions of the day has been opened in *The American Journal of Theology*, a quarterly issued by the University of Chicago press. In the first number of this periodical, just issued, announcement is made that "writers upon all theological subjects and of every school of theological opinion will receive a welcome." One definite limitation, however, is laid down, and that is that contributed articles to be acceptable must recognize the necessity of applying scientific methods to the discussion of theological questions. Among the contributors to the first number are Professor Bruce, of the Free Church College, Glasgow, who writes on "Theological Agnosticism"; Prof. Charles A. Briggs, who discusses "The Scope of Theology and Its Place in the University"; and President Strong, of Rochester Theological Seminary, who reviews "Recent Tendencies in Theological Thought." Other contributions are from Prof. Casper Rene Gregory, of Leipsic, and Professor Menzies, of St. Andrew's, Scotland.

President Strong's article on the drift of theological thought at the present time is of special interest because of its indorsement of the progressive school of thinkers and its general tone of confidence and hopefulness for the immediate future of Christianity. Current theology for the last twenty years in Germany, and now in this country, it is said, has for its watchword "Back to Christ," and the main purpose of the article is to vindicate the truth of that phrase. Dr. Strong writes:

"I, too, would go back to Christ, but in a larger and deeper sense than the phrase commonly bears. I would go back to Christ, as to that which is original in thought, archetypal in creation, immanent in history; to the logos of God, who is not only the omniscient Reason, but also the personal Conscience and Will, at the heart of the universe. . . . I would go back to Christ, but I would carry with me and would lay at His feet all the new knowledge of His greatness which philosophy and history have given. I would reach the true Christ, not by a process of exclusion, but by a process of inclusion. And this I claim to be an application of the methods of science, when science possesses herself of all accessible facts and uses all her means of knowledge.

"We must judge beginnings by endings, and not endings by beginnings. Evolution only shows what was the nature of the involution that went before. Nothing can come out that was not, at least latently, in the germ. I must interpret the acorn by the oak, not the oak by the acorn. Only as I know the glory and strength of the mighty tree can I appreciate the meaning and value of the nut from which it sprang. 'We can understand the ameba and the polyp,' says Lewes, 'only by a light reflected from the study of man.' It is only an application of this method of interpreting the germ by what comes out of it, when Christian faith sees in Christ the source of the whole modern movement toward truth and righteousness, makes His historic appearance upon earth the beginning of a spiritual kingdom of God, and so recognizes Him as divine Wisdom and Love incarnate. I would go back to Christ; but I would let nature and humanity and the church tell the true nature of Him from whom they all derived their being and in whom they all consist."

Dr. Strong then proceeds to unfold the thought that if we accept the story of Christ's life on earth as told by the Evangelists, a going back to Christ must be a going back to a being of supernatural power, a being whose mission was not so much moral teaching as it was the dying for men's sins. This view of Christ is affirmed also by the later Gospel writers, and especially by Paul, who asserted Christ's resurrection as an indubitable fact—the one fact indeed upon which Christianity itself is based. We can not, it is declared, strip Christ of the supernatural and dogmatic elements with which He clothed Himself, and with which Paul and John clothed Him, without depriving Christianity of its very essence and leaving it without authority and efficacy. Of those who seek to do this, it is said:

"They give us simple law instead of Gospel, and summon us before a tribunal that damns us. To degrade doctrine by exalting precept is to leave men without the motive or the power to obey the precept. The Alexandrian philosophy enabled Paul and John to interpret Christ better than this—it enabled them to see in Him the life of God, and so the life of man. Not only the Alexandrian philosophy, but all subsequent philosophy—yes, all science, all history, all art—has its part to play in enlarging and classifying our conceptions of Him. And so we come to our proper task. Let us go back to Christ, with the new understanding of Him which modern thought has given us. We propose to go back from deism to Christ the life of nature; from atomism to Christ the life of humanity; from externalism to Christ the life of the church."

Dr. Strong sees a growing recognition in the thought of the time of Christ as the life of nature, and he thinks that this will lead finally to a complete accord between theology and science. Proceeding on this point he says:

"Theology tells us the *why*, while science tells us the *how*. We need have no fear of evolution, for evolution is only the common method of Christ, a method, however, which does not fetter Him, because His immanence in nature is qualified by His transcendence above nature. Immanence alone would be Christ imprisoned, as transcendence alone would be Christ banished. Reason and faith are not antagonistic to each other."

Dr. Strong's hopeful and optimistic view of the theological situation is thus emphasized in his closing paragraph:

"He who goes back to Christ as the life and power of God can have no doubt as to the issue of the struggle between good and evil, truth and error, for the secrets of all hearts are known to Christ, and He is the omnipotent force that works for good in human history. The solid globe is in His grasp, and when our prayer touches the hand that upholds the Western hemisphere, the other can instantaneously answer that prayer in India or in Japan."

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FROM FOREIGN LANDS.

CUBA'S MISERY.

THE outlook for Cuba is very dark. Spanish rule has not been very good there, as even the friends of Spain admit, and the island is now such a wreck, financially and morally, that it is difficult to believe that peace would return at once even if the people were to accept autonomy, obtain their independence, be taken over by another nation, or remain under Spain. In a long and carefully written study on the condition of the island, the correspondent of the *Kölnische Zeitung*, Cologne, describes the tremendous difficulties which encounter the new captain-general and his attempts to introduce reform and to create some semblance of order. As Germany's political interests are not at all and her commercial interests very slightly involved in the Cuban trouble, this article may be presumed to be thoroughly impartial. We quote as follows:

"'Autonomy' sounds well enough, but it is easier said than done. Cuba is perfectly ruined. The larger cities are under martial law, and the country people have been gathered in the *concentraciones* by Weyler's orders. Thousands are thus cooped up in huts made of palm-leaves, and the fever has full sway. All the haciendas are destroyed, the tobacco-fields are ruined, the sugar-cane is rotting on the fields or has been burned, since Weyler prohibited harvesting because the haciendados paid a tribute to the rebels for the privilege of gathering their cane. Men and youths have gone in large numbers to join the rebels, if not from patriotism, at least to escape the pangs of hunger. Here the bayonets of the Spaniards—there the fanatical insurgent leaders. How, then, is the populace to vote on autonomy and the new constitution?

"I believe both parties would refuse; the Loyalists because they must expect to see their bitterest enemies elected, the Insurgents because their wives and children in the *concentraciones* will be held responsible. Or is Spain to permit the people in the *concentraciones* to disperse? Kind-hearted as Blanco is, even he would not be willing to give up this last of his advantages.

"Another question is that of money. Spain has contracted a debt of about $80,000,000 in this war. Is Spain to lose this without a murmur, besides the loss of trade, which must needs follow autonomy? The Cubans would like that, but the Cubans will not take this debt upon themselves. Or is it to be divided? The parties on the island would soon fight over the proportion to be paid by Cuba. Lastly, who is to govern Cuba? A Spanish governor may be found, but who are to be his subalterns? Until now all public officers have been filled with Spaniards. Where are the Cubans to find men experienced enough to give prosperity to the country? They are, perhaps, even more corrupt than the Spaniards themselves. Autonomy would be followed by such barefaced corruption and spoils-hunting that the Cubans would regard Spanish rule as their Golden Age.

"Nor should the differences between the whites and the blacks in Cuba be forgotten. The negroes, whose constitution is better adapted to the climate, have borne the brunt of the battle. This has given them an influence which is all the more dangerous, as Haiti is very near. Are they to be disfranchised? Are they to be excluded from office? Spain could do that, but an autonomous Cuban government could not. A race war would in all probability follow, especially as the whites and the colored are about equal in numbers.

"All this will show that Cuba can not be made happy by deliberations around an office table."

General Blanco has, according to latest accounts, considered some of these difficulties, and he proposes to his Government to defer the elections until peace has been restored, or at least until the insurrection weakens. This means a continuation of the struggle, and a consequent increase of the danger of American interference. Europe is aware of that, and many influential European papers discuss the question whether the United States should be allowed to wrest Cuba from Spain. The *Soleil*, Paris, says:

"If the war, owing to its long duration, has become barbarous in character, if much blood has been shed unnecessarily, if the beautiful island has been desolated, the Spaniards certainly are not responsible. The blame rests entirely with the Americans. Under the seeming philanthropy of the Americans lies hidden the ambition of their politicians and the selfish aims of their speculators. Cuba is valuable booty, and both politicians and speculators will stop short of nothing to obtain it, unless they are met with sufficient armed force. It would not be a bad idea to get Europe to assist Spain against this thieving policy."

Other French papers express themselves in a similar manner. There are also some Italian publications which urge the intervention of the powers, should the United States attack Spain in her possessions. The *Matina*, Rome, which can not forget that Italians have occasionally fallen victims to popular prejudice in the United States, even believes that an agreement has been formed among the powers, who only wait to see whether American influence will retard or render impossible the acceptance of autonomy on the part of the insurgents. But no European government has so far shown willingness to interfere. The Germans wish to be out of the affair, and the *National Zeitung*, Berlin, says France may "bell the cat" if she wishes to do so.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

EARLY CHINESE IMPRESSIONS OF WESTERN CIVILIZATION.

CHINA'S defeat in the late war with Japan has aroused her to the eminent necessity of entering into closer relations with Western nations for the purpose of adopting their improvements. She has been blamed for her long seclusion, but historical researches show that, even from the earliest days of European exploration in Asia, the white man was regarded as intolerant, cruel, unjust, and arrogant in his relations with the yellow. The *Handelsblad*, quoting from the *Bydragen* of the Royal Indian Institute of Holland, gives its countrymen an insight into the manner in which the early Dutch navigators and conquistadores estranged the Chinese. We quote as follows:

"Our ancestors had something of the spirit which is nowadays often described as English; they seemed to think that they had an exclusive right to power everywhere in the world; they valued human life very little and regarded people who were not Christians as a kind of devils.

"Their chief aim was to become masters of the China trade, and to drive out the Portuguese. According to our modern views, they should have acted as the friends of the Chinese, to prove themselves a people whose assistance would be of real value to the Chinese in their opposition to the Portuguese. We should also imagine that foreigners, wishing to trade, should formulate some clearly defined, unmistakable demands, and we can understand that they would uphold such demands by force of arms. But our ancestors did neither. They 'cultivated friendly relations' with pirate chiefs. They were continually out to make prisoners of as many natives as possible, in order to release them when the Chinese were brought to terms.

"Our ancestors were always anxious to people their East Indian possessions with Chinese. De Carpentier, who followed Coen as governor, said: 'I wish we could get a million Chinamen, they are easy to rule, and quiet, hard-working subjects. But the wished-for 'million' never was gathered. Kidnaping was in full swing in 1622, but the stolen human ware was not properly looked after. Of 1,159 Chinese sent to Pehoe in the Pescadores, many escaped, still more died from ill-treatment, 571 were sent to Batavia, of which 463 died during the voyage and 65 more shortly after they arrived, leaving only 33! The Chinese were forced at last to proceed firmly against us. There is, however, only one case of treachery scored against the Chinese. Francx, one of the officers, was captured in an unfair manner and held prisoner. It can not be said that the Indian Council took this much to heart. They regarded the matter as an 'incidental disaster.' Who cared in those days for a human life! Nobody dreamed of

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suggesting that some advantages gained by the company should be given up to rescue the prisoner.

"Sonck, who followed Reyersen in the command and held it until the settlement in the Pescadores was given up, says:

"'What we have done has aroused the hatred of all China. We are, and justly, regarded as murderers and pirates. The way we have treated the Chinese could never have opened their coasts to our trade, and it would have been better if we had never gone there. It will take a long time to overcome the bad impression.'

"Our ancestors evidently did not consider sufficiently that, even in the case of Asiatics, 'more flies are caught with honey than with vinegar.'"—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

FROM THE NIGER TO THE NILE.

THE Paris Foreign Office has vigorously protested against the further distribution of arms and ammunition to the slave-raiding chiefs in Africa whose territory can be reached by British traders. The British Foreign Office protests as strongly against the presence of French troops in the territory of chiefs who have consented to accept a British protectorate. Frenchmen and Englishmen are going about in Africa with their finger on the trigger, and the Germans are watching developments in the hope of profiting by the rivalry of their neighbors. But the chances of a war, with the exception of a few skirmishes in Africa, are considered very remote by on-lookers, as England is not thought to be in a position to challenge France while the difficulties in India and on the Nile are still pending.

The *Handelsblad* summarizes the situation as follows:

"English 'chartered companies' do not bear a good name, since it is thought that they are used by the British Government for the sole purpose of doing underhand work which British diplomats can not well perform. Thus the South African Company has lost its reputation, and thus also the Niger Company is losing it. Every official of this company is under £1,000 bonds which he loses if he makes known what the company is doing. Yet travelers in Africa have found out a thing or two, for instance that the wars of the company are not at all necessary, and that the lives of the natives are sacrificed to the cupidity of the company.

"Moreover, the company is responsible for the present differences with France. The mouth of the Niger is in British hands, as is also its course so far as navigable. But the French claim Boussa, which could be reached by vessels ascending the river if a little canal-making were done. This is not at all to the taste of the English, who prefer that all French exports and imports pass through their territory. Hence the Niger Company suddenly discovers that its agents hold some treaties with the Boussa chiefs, in virtue of which the French, who are in actual possession of the country, must vacate it."

This the French decline to do most emphatically. Moreover, the differences regarding Boussa are only a handle to the dispute. A French expedition has crossed the Continent of Africa toward the East, and is daily expected to join hands with another French force on the Nile. Both are likely to assist Abyssinia in preventing the British occupation of Kassala, and even to help the Dervishes, for the French are determined to establish their rule from the Niger to the Nile. The *Libre Parole* says:

"The claims of the English in most cases will not bear investigation. Their treaties were obtained generally when the chiefs had been made drunk, and in many cases after French agents had already concluded such treaties. France has the very best right to the territories which England, in the name of the Niger Company, elects to dispute. France is already in possession, and French detachments have in a large measure put down the slave trade encouraged by Great Britain."

The *Temps* expresses itself to the following effect:

France, Great Britain, and Germany agreed that the northern boundary of their possessions should be the ninth degree north. French expeditions have been very active, but they have always respected this agreement. Beyond that, tho some of the treaties are undoubtedly valid, actual possession must decide all disputes. France can not afford to forego the advantages which her activity has brought her, tho her possessions close the door to further British advances. France is determined at any cost to establish a connection between her possessions on the Ivory Coast and the Sudan. No time should be lost in settling the difficulty, else a collision is inevitable.

The British papers declare that, indeed, a continuous empire from the Niger to the Nile must be formed, but it will be British. *The Times* warns France that England repudiates all responsibility for a collision between French and British detachments. *The Daily News* advises France to order her troops to retire, as otherwise the world may witness the disgraceful spectacle of white men engaged in battle under the eyes of the savages. *The St. James's Gazette*, referring to the entrance of French troops into territory in the Hinterland of Lagos, which is within the ninth degree north, says:

"The action of the French was perfectly intolerable. Not content with occupying Boussa and other places to which the British claims are incontestable, they added insult to injury by deliberately marching through the Hinterland of Lagos and occupying points below the ninth parallel. In short, in order to invade territory to which they have no substantial claims, they have had the audacity to seize towns which are as much British territory as the Isle of Wight. . . . The fact is that the French have for too long successfully flouted us in Africa, and it is time that they were given to understand that there are limits to our complaisance. They must be convinced once for all that everything west of a line drawn from the town of Say southward to the sea is and must remain British."

The German Government, in the mean time, having been informed that some British outposts are established in Gandu and Socoto, has notified Great Britain that this is an infringement of the German sphere of influence. This the London *Standard* calls preposterous and absurd. But the German press are preparing to encourage their Government in the pursuit of its claims. The *Post*, Berlin, says:

"If it is true that England has occupied Salaga and other neutralized territories, she has been guilty of refreshing assurance in the violation of international rights. In such a case our Government must certainly demand that explanations be furnished by the British authorities."

The *National Zeitung* relates that Dr. Grüner, who concluded a treaty with the Sultan of Gandu April 5, 1895, had taken special care to ascertain that this potentate of a fairly well-ordered Mohammedan state was free to enter into negotiations. Dr. Grüner had drawn the attention of the Sultan to the fact that other nations might claim to have treaties with him, as well as Germany, and had given him to understand that he was neither a Frenchman nor an Englishman. The Sultan replied that no English or French commission had reached him, whereupon the treaty was signed.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

SOCIAL OSTRACISM OF THE ROYAL IRISH CONSTABULARY.

BY the use of fractional garrisons, and the almost complete disarmament of the people, the British Government has rendered a rising of Ireland utterly impossible, and Continental statesmen often mention with envy that British common sense has permitted the creation of a military occupation so complete that nothing in Europe equals it. But the men who thus render rebellion at the very gates of England futile have to pay the penalty. Of splendid physique, well trained, much above the average British soldier of the line in intelligence, and fairly well paid, the Irish constabulary are yet unable to mingle with the people. Stephen Crane, the American novelist and journalist, in

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The Westminster Gazette, London, describes their social ostracism as follows:

"One can not look Ireland straight in the face without seeing a great many constables. The country is dotted with little garrisons. It must have been said a thousand times that there is an absolute military occupation. The fact is too plain. . . . . .

"The constable himself becomes a figure interesting in its isolation. He has in most cases a social position analogous to that of the Turk in Thessaly. But the Turk can have battalions as companions and make the acquaintance of brigades. The constable has the constabulary, it is true; but to be cooped up with three or four others in a small white-washed iron-bound house on some bleak country side is not an exact parallel to the Thessalian situation. Two keepers of a lighthouse at a bitter end of land in a remote sea will, if properly let alone, make a murder in time. Five constables imprisoned amid folk that will not turn their faces toward them, dwell in scowling dislike. . . . . .

"The national custom of meeting stranger and friend alike on the road with a cheery greeting like 'God save you' is too kindly and human a habit not to be missed. But all through the south of Ireland one sees the peasant turn his eyes pretentiously to the side of the road at the passing of the constable. It seemed to be generally understood that to note the presence of a constable was to make a conventional error. None looked, nodded, or gave sign. There was a line drawn so sternly that it reared like a fence. Of course, any policing force in any part of the world can gather at its heels a riff-raff of people, fawning always on a hand licensed to strike that would be larger than the army of the Potomac, but of these one ordinarily sees little. The mass of the Irish strictly obey the stern tenet. One hears often of the ostracism or other punishment that befel some girl who was caught flirting with a constable.

"Naturally the constable retreats to his pride. He is commonly a soldierly-looking chap, straight, lean, long-strided, well set-up. His little saucer of a forage cap sits obediently on his ear, as it does for the British soldier. He swings a little cane. He takes his medicine with a calm and hard face, and evidently stares full into every eye. . . . There has been no such marooning since the days of the pirates. The sequestration must be complete when a man with a dinky little cap on his ear is not allowed to talk to the girls."

BRITAIN'S ARMY.

"WE don't want to fight," ran the well-known chorus of the jingo song in England during the Russo-Turkish war of 1878—

> "But by Jingo! If we do,
> We've got the ships, we've got the men,
> We've got the money, too."

There can be little doubt that the ships and the money are even more plentiful to-day than twenty years ago; but the third necessary ingredient seems to be getting scarce. Sir Charles Dilke says in *The St. James's Gazette:*

"The breakdown of our present system of enlistment is evidenced by the lowering of the standard. The guardsman is now habitually taken at 5 feet 7 inches, and the linesman at 5 feet 3½ inches. The shapes of the men now accepted for the line are more startling than their small stature, and owing to our present system we are clearly drawing in an increased degree on inferior classes of the population."

Yet the demands made upon the British army are continually increasing. The same paper says, editorially:

"In the size of armies the world has moved faster between Gravelotte and Domokos than it did between Waterloo and Sedan. But the British army alone has stood still. We remain content with our handful of regular infantry—for it is a handful, as things go—supplemented by a doubtful reserve. . . . To sum up, we have annexed (*teste* Lord Rosebery) within the last dozen years 2,600,000 square miles; that is to say, a territory out of which you could make two-and-twenty Great Britains and Irelands. Yet we are content with our 56,000 infantry at home, and our few regiments of magnificent, but only half-horsed, cavalry, and our artillery which would not satisfy Bavaria, and our half-holiday young clerks and shopmen, who may possibly go on volunteering if they are not wholly seduced by the superior attractions of the bicycle."

Most English papers acknowledge that this is a dangerous state of things, but there are few practical suggestions for a remedy acceptable to the traditions of the British public. Conscription seems out of the question. The suggestion to draw upon the militia and the volunteers to fill up gaps in the line finds more favor. *The Westminster Gazette* says:

"We are face to face, then, with the economics of a paid army. The army is an employment competing with a large number of other employments, and unless the conditions are comparatively attractive it will not draw, while the demand for labor is brisk. . . . It is impossible to offer higher pay to the new recruits without giving it also to the whole of the existing army with the colors. On the other hand, if the army pays no better than it does, recruiting up to the required strength will only be possible in lean years. We are well aware that the advocate of conscription is watching grimly in the background, and preparing to pounce in with the assertion that he always said so, and that there is no remedy but this. We advise him to refrain. If the military party are going to take that line they will defeat their own demand. The public remarks first of all that the short-service system rests on the assumption that the recruit-class constitutes a regular and sufficient supply. If experience disproves that, we shall first of all have to reconsider short service and see whether we can not make more of militia and volunteers for our reserve."

The ultra-Radical, trade-union, and Socialist papers even deny that an appreciable increase of the army is necessary. *The Clarion*, London, is certain that 60,000 British regulars, with 200,000 volunteers and 150,000 militia, would be more than a match for 450,000 foreigners, considering the fact that "all the patriotism and stubborn courage of the British people, stirred to the highest valor by the unaccustomed necessity of defending their wives, their children, and their homes" would be brought into play. Continental papers, however, think the English must have a very high opinion of their own prowess if they believe that badly trained Britons are superior in the field to what badly trained Frenchmen or Greeks have proven themselves to be. Much amusement is caused in continental circles by a suggestion by Bernard Shaw, in *The Saturday Review*, which we summarize as follows:

To obtain a larger number of men, and to increase the discipline of the army without obnoxious martial law, it is only necessary to adopt the principles which govern factories. Soldiers and sailors must be free to leave the service when it no longer suits them to stay. Give them the same freedom as other citizens. Soldiers, like policemen, should have the right to "strike work" for higher pay and better treatment. There could not be much harm even if they were to lay down their arms on a battle-field, refusing to attack an enemy until they are promised twopence more a day.

The *Handelsblad*, Amsterdam, remarks to this "that one need not be a military man to see how childish and impossible such theories are, altho, no doubt, Englishmen must be given greater privileges if they are to be kept in the service." The *Vossische Zeitung*, Berlin, says:

"Whether they like it or not, the English will be forced to change the system of supply of men for the army. The present system of free enlistment is terribly expensive and does not pay at that. We are well aware that the English people will seriously object to being trained *en masse* in the use of arms. But if England is to hold her own, there is no other alternative. Recent naval maneuvers have shown that, large as England's fleet is, it can not safeguard her against invasion."

French opinion is similar. The *Temps*, Paris, notices that the land of Cobden is arming to the teeth, and wonders whether the English find themselves compelled to give up their traditional liberty.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

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FOREIGN COMMENT ON THE NEW YORK ELECTION.

THE election of the first mayor of Greater New York is generally taken by the foreign journals as an ominous sign. Tammany Hall is accepted as a synonym for corruption and rapacity, and its reinstatement in power is an evidence that the majority prefer that sort of thing.

The most biting comment we have seen is in the London *Sun*, which quotes 2 Peter ii. 22, and adds:

"The chief city of a great people must see its municipal offices filled with men who should be filling cells in the penitentiary. New York has fallen like rotten fruit into the hands of the boodlers, but the New Yorkers may console themselves with saying that every city, as every land, has the government it deserves."

The St. James's Gazette thinks there can be no change until America produces men who are willing to give their time to public affairs without pecuniary reward. *The Pall Mall Gazette* "can not congratulate the citizens of New York," and declares that "an organization like Tammany could not exist in London. A man or an organization proven guilty of corruption could never return to power." *The Westminster Gazette* wishes Seth Low "better luck next time," and says that the system under which New York is to be ruled "seems to outsiders absolutely intolerable." *The Financial News* says:

"In principle the Americans are rigid Puritans; but in practise they are much like other people, and it is probable that the votes of not a few who hate the corrupt methods of Tammany went to Judge Van Wyck as a protest against the intolerance of the present *régime*. As a political victory for the Democratic Party we do not regard the New York election. It was solely a question of the power of the Tammany organization and the drink-sellers against the efforts of the better classes to put down corruption."

The Daily Telegraph "hesitates to give the palm even to Turkey" in a contest for the greatest corruption in which New York enters. This paper thinks that Croker's post-election manifesto "must sound very pleasantly to saloon-keepers and proprietors of disorderly houses." *The Times* says:

"The power of Mr. Croker's organization will be widened, strengthened, and consolidated. The means will be supplied for preparing for the next campaign and insuring the return of another Tammany nominee. The merchants and bankers of New York, the wise and cultivated men, the honest and philanthropic citizens, will be as impotent under Mr. Croker's domination as Italian or Hungarian patriots under the benumbing rule of Metternich. And who can deny that 'the people love to have it so?'"

The Home News remarks that, in sober truth, "the honorable element in American public life is small. From the voting for the mayoralty of New York it appears to be no more than 25 per cent. For the rest, 'bossism,' with its illimitable opportunities for the distribution of spoils, obtains pretty generally, and the Republican system is only a degree better than that of Tammany itself." But the Newcastle *Chronicle* does not think corruption is necessary, even in America. "For," says the paper,

"it did not always exist in American politics. Washington, in all the eight years of his administration, removed only 9 men from office; Adams, only 9; Jefferson, 39, but none for political reasons; Madison, 9; Monroe, 5; John Quincy Adams, 2; and then, coming to the new *régime* which still flourishes, Jackson, according to his opponents, 2,000, and, according to his own admission, 690. It was the State of New York that saw the origination of the Jacksonian principle applied to politics—a system which has lasted to the present day."

The French press, jealous of the honor of republics, deplore the result of the election very much. The *Temps*, Paris, compares Van Wyck to Esau, "selling the rights of his fellow citizens and the cause of honest Democracy for a mess of pottage." The *Journal des Débats* says in substance this:

Once more the honest section among the people of New York have shown that they are utterly incapable of forming an organization sufficiently strong to break up political syndicates. Tammany has claimed, through its chief, that the people declared against "hypocrisy, lies, abuse, and public evils," but the truth is that in the American Democracy, more so even than in others, such expressions are mere phrases, used to cover political exploitation. We need not go further for an illustration than the New York police. These Irishmen, with the clannishness of their race, adhere faithfully to the political syndicate, and do not apply the law except in the case of Tammany's adversaries. For a few dollars they conveniently forget their duties, and the chiefs of these representatives of law and order wink at the little profits of their subordinates, in order to hold them to the party. The indifference of the better elements among the Americans, who take no interest in politics at all, materially assists this corruption, which can not be equaled in the Old World, where prejudice against dishonesty is harder to kill.

In other countries on the Continent the press comments are equally scathing. The *Kölnische Zeitung*, Cologne, thinks the people of New York have missed their best chance to prove that they do not like corruption. The *Tageblatt* is certain that Tammany's victory is a set-back to the reform movement throughout the United States. The *Vossische Zeitung* does not see how any one could deny that the election was won because corruption is acceptable to the people. The *Handelsblad*, Amsterdam, thinks the machine never worked more openly, since Croker declared outright he wanted Van Wyck because he could use him, and since Van Wyck was not even permitted to open his mouth during the campaign.

Nor are our neighbors to the North less sparing in their criticism. *The Daily Times*, Victoria, N. B., says:

"Europeans may well pause in amazement to contemplate a spectacle impossible to match anywhere on the globe. It might be thought that the bitter fruits of experience, which is said to teach fools, would have been sufficient for the New Yorkers. The Empire City knows full well that Tammany rule means municipal strangulation. . . . The most implacable foe of the city could have wished her nothing more terrific than to be again cursed by the rotten rule of Boss Croker and his piratical crew. They will now be in clover; New York was fat and juicy, but Greater New York is a dripping roast."

The Montreal *Witness* thinks that "as Tammany's one and only reason for controlling the administration is to be in a position to plunder the city," the outlook is very dark. *The Monetary Times*, as indeed every foreign paper, deplores the death of Henry George, which is generally considered to have turned the scale in Van Wyck's favor. It adds, however:

"Tammany, with all its sins, must represent some active force that was stronger than any embodied in any of the other three parties to the fight. It is, however, as the numbers show, not an overwhelming force, or one which there was not enough of reserve power in the community to control. . . . What has Tammany promised? It is pledged to fight monopolies, tho some think it is more likely to bleed them; dollar gas it has promised somehow to obtain. The lowest on the poll were men classed as monopolists, including General Tracy; the highest those who, Henry George being dead, showed the boldest front against monopolies and combines, the tendency of which to aggrandizement, nevertheless, survives; their culmination is not yet 'in sight.'"

Saturday Night, tho admitting that the chances of its theory being verified are very small, thinks there is a possibility that Mayor Van Wyck may fool the machine. The paper says:

"Judge Van Wyck has four years of power, and is less at the mercy of political bosses than any of his predecessors. It may occur to him that it would be good business to 'throw down' Mr. Croker and boss the job himself."

W. T. Stead, the editor of the London *Review of Reviews*, goes a step farther and suggests the possibility that Tammany, "boss" and all, may do better than expected—on Becky Sharp's principle.—*Translations made for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

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MISCELLANEOUS.

THE CHINESE WOMAN'S SMALL FOOT.

AN illustrated article on this subject is contributed to *La Nature* (Paris, October 16) by Dr. I. I. Matignon, medical *attaché* to the French legation at Peking. Dr. Matignon comes to the conclusion that if the Chinese want their women to have deformed feet, it is none of our business, and he deprecates missionary interference with the custom. He says:

"The small foot of the Chinese woman, to which the Celestials give the name of 'The Golden Lily,' has always been an object of curiosity to Europeans.

"I have no intention of passing in review all the motives that

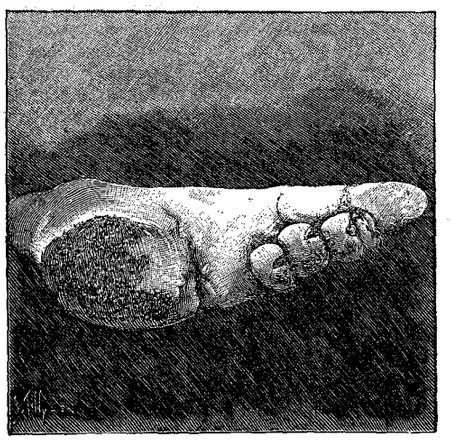

FIG. 1.—Foot of Chinese Woman; Arrangement of Toes.

have been suggested to explain why for centuries the Chinese have been mutilating their women's feet; they are all equally improbable.

"They do not begin to produce this deformation of the foot till about the age of four or five years. The result is obtained, little by little, by means of bandages, tightened more and more, which produce in the foot a double movement—one of flexion on itself and one of rotation of the four smaller toes around the great toe.

FIG. 2.—Foot of Chinese Woman. Side View.

. . . The scaphoid bone . . . is always more or less displaced and raises the skin of the foot, which sometimes becomes ulcerated (Figs. 1 and 2).

"The accompanying photographs represent the foot of a young girl of twenty years. . . . Seen from the outside, it represents a right-angled triangle. . . . The inner face, which is of general triangular form, shows the disposition of the toes, which rest with their backs in contact with the ground, deformed and compressed. The nails are small and atrophied, but an exception should be made in the case of that of the second toe, which has the appearance of a claw. The accompanying diagram (Fig. 3) gives a better idea of the deformation of the Chinese woman's foot than any description could.

"When the foot has reached a sufficient degree of atrophy, at the cost of considerable pain, the young Chinese woman has not yet reached the end of her sufferings. She must keep her foot continually bandaged to be able to walk, and a promenade of any length is impossible.

"The atrophy of the foot leads to atrophy of the leg, which is reduced to a skeletonic state; the muscles disappear and scarcely more than skin and bone remain.

"This atrophy of the leg does a good deal to increase the trouble of walking and of keeping the balance. The Chinese woman can walk only with the aid of a boot made in the form of her foot. This bears a sort of hoof which alone serves as a sustaining point. The bottom of the foot does not touch the ground, and the women walk a little like cripples. They are not very firm on their feet, and when they are old must use a cane. They walk with their arms lightly held apart to serve as balances—the abdomen held back and the chest thrown forward; they seem to be chasing their center of gravity. When their feet are held together, the slightest push is enough to topple them over. Besides, a foot is thought of more highly the smaller it is; the one here shown, belonging to one of the common people, is relatively large. Among rich Chinese women, it would be much smaller, and the woman would be prouder of her foot than of her face.

"The Chinese woman is very modest about her feet. She does not like to have any one look at them. I have several times attended the wives of mandarins for diseases of the feet, and they would consent to have me examine them only after much ado and many blushes. Even then they managed to uncover only the exact part affected.

"All Chinese women have not deformed feet. The mutilation is more frequent in the South than in the North, and in the city than in the country. The Manchu women are not allowed to bandage their feet; there are formal imperial decrees to this effect.

"A campaign against this so-called barbarous custom has long

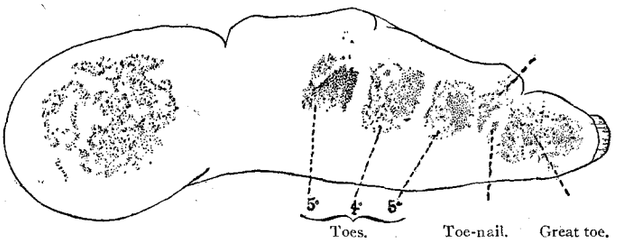

FIG. 3.—Imprint of Foot, Showing Deformation of the Toes.

been carried on by missionary societies, and particularly by English woman missionaries. They have even sent an address to one of the ministers of the Government, who answered that in regard to such subjects, the Son of Heaven reserved the right to do as he thought best.

"The Chinese think that a deformed foot is pretty. Let us allow them to consult their own taste. What would Queen Victoria say if she should receive a petition signed by numerous Chinese, demanding that she forbid English girls to wear corsets?"
—*Translated for* THE LITERARY DIGEST.

American Locomotives in Japan.—Some time ago we quoted in these columns from an article in an English journal containing the statement that the first locomotives imported from the United States into Japan had proved unsatisfactory. This charge is pronounced untrue by *The Railway and Engineering Review*, which says:

"We are in possession of information that most emphatically refutes the damaging testimony which there appears. The statement that in 1891 two American locomotives were imported is true. That the experiment was thoroughly unsatisfactory, the locomotives becoming useless within a year, is unhesitatingly stamped as being untrue. The engines referred to have in fact been in continuous use up to the present time. The article fur-

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ther states that Mr. Matsumoto caused to be imported, in January, 1894, four American locomotives which fared no better than their predecessors. This statement is also characterized as being absolutely untrue. The statement that after this experience the railway bureau decided that the English engines were the better, and that in a subsequent order for eighteen locomotives it was for that reason expressly stipulated that they be of English make, is therefore based upon a mere inference of the writer and stands unsupported by fact. We learn from the most reliable sources that the exportation of American locomotives to Japan alone since January 1, 1891, has been in the close neighborhood of three hundred. These orders have been filled by six different American locomotive works, and the orders filled or in process of execution during the present year are much more than four times as great as those of any one of the six previous years."

DOUGHNUTS AND RELIGION.

THE Shakespearian personages in "As You Like It" who found "sermons in stones," would have been congenial companions for Charles Dudley Warner, who finds quite a sermon in the doughnut. He preaches it in his "Editor's Study," in *Harper's Monthly* (November):

"I have been traveling in New England. It can not be said that the doughnut is what it once was. . . . The trifling way in which the doughnut has been spoken of for a generation has had its effect. Skepticism withers its object. Nothing can flourish that is not esteemed. Faith went into the old doughnut; sometimes jelly also, as a supreme act of affection for the domestic idol. You must believe in the doughnut before you can make it. You must believe in the doughnut before you can eat it. And after that you must believe in a power higher than yourself that works in you for righteousness.

"With the doughnut in its integrity and unquestioned place in daily life has gone religion. Of course the form remains in both cases. When I say religion I mean the Puritan, that was able to conceive and eat the doughnut. If theological discussion were permitted here, it might be argued that Unitarianism could never have originated the doughnut. I would not push this matter so far as to be fanciful, nor any further than is necessary to trace the relation of the doughnut, raised or stirred, to the old order. In my conception of this old order, if your belief were right, it did not matter much what you ate. Ever-present duty did not concern itself with the body. That concerned the spirit only. The clarity of the spirit was not supposed to be related to the soundness and sanity of the body. The relation of dyspepsia to the higher life was never studied. There was affectionate anxiety about the health of our dear ones, but this was not in relation to the spiritual condition of the one afflicted. The effect of diet upon temperament, upon kindly feeling, upon character, was not much considered; its relation to a religious life not at all. And, indeed, there were shining instances of great spirituality in the most infirm bodily conditions. It was thought to shine out with special brilliance in infirmities. And these cases led to the notion that there might be a necessary connection between bodily incapacity and spiritual growth. And this may have led to the further deduction that there was no necessary connection between bad cooking and ill temper, 'crossness,' 'glumness,' sullenness, curt speech, forbidding reserve, and a dull household.

"From one point of view there was a certain nobility in this disregard of the physical side. There was something of martyrdom in it, viewing the battle of life as a means of subduing physical energy for the sake of spiritual elevation. And there is immense pathos in the sight of the companies and regiments of young girls, of the graceful years of sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen, who marched down into New England graveyards, winsome creatures as they seem to us in the single-line inscriptions on the old tombstones. The joys of life that might have been were sacrificed for a poetic memory of maidenhood.

"Of course there is another side of this change which the philosophic observer sees in New England. If the physical life is more abounding and more cared for, if there is more enlightenment in a way, there is a certain disorganization and flying from a center. Religions and sects and fads have multiplied, and there is a revival of superstitions and occultisms already deemed outworn in the Middle Ages. Society becomes not only emancipated but tangential. Spiritism, theosophy, mind-reading, mind-cure, Christian science, thought-transfer, telepathy, astrology, all the whims of a stimulated body and an unanchored mind, flourish in the very center where the Puritan fried his meat and his doughnuts and believed in God. The pursuit of happiness, formulated by Rousseau and enunciated in our Declaration, has become the object of life. Not duty but amusement is the end and endeavor. Socialism and a modified paternalism insensibly shape even legislation, and replace the old and stern Puritan individualism. We are going along, whither no one knows exactly, but going by trolley, by bicycle, on excursions, in pursuit of entertainment and enjoyment, every day more and more enlightened, more and more scientific, more and more superstitious, every day new wants, new means of satisfying them, new comforts, wider experiences, women acting like men, and some men acting like women, in the discovery of new nerves that are sources of torture, all society in a whirl, in a sort of expectancy, and going along no doubt into a glorious future. It is a most interesting and exhilarating spectacle! And yet the antiquated observer wonders whether the glorious future will be any better for the individual soul than the old order that was anchored on the doughnut. Agamemnon was a brave man, and Penelope was a charming woman."

CORRESPONDENTS' CORNER.

That Ancient Riddle.

In THE LITERARY DIGEST (September 18) we reprinted from *Cosmos* (Paris) an ancient riddle found in the form of an epitaph, in Latin, in the château of Chantilly. The epitaph, translated, runs as follows:

ÆLIA LÆLIA CRISPIS.

Neither man, nor woman, nor hermaphrodite,
Neither infant, young, nor old,
Neither chaste, depraved, nor modest,
But all these;
Removed neither by hunger, sword, nor poison,
But by all:
She lies neither in the sky, nor in the waters, but everywhere.

LUCIUS AGATHO CRISPUS.

Neither husband, lover, nor friend,
But all these;
Neither weeping nor rejoicing,
But both;
Has erected this, neither a mausoleum, a pyramid, nor a sepulcher,
But all three;
Both knowing and knowing not to whom he had erected it.

This is a tomb that holds no body;
This is a body held in no tomb,
But is its own body and its own tomb.

Several attempts to solve this have been made by our readers, which we give herewith:

Editor of THE LITERARY DIGEST.—

As a solution to "An Ancient and Unsolved Riddle," published in your issue of September 18, I would suggest that the "The Dead," both in the vegetable and animal kingdoms, might fill the requirements of "Ælia Lælia Crispis," and "The Dying" covers the ground indicated by "Lucius Agatho Crispus." A READER.

Editor of THE LITERARY DIGEST.—

The article contained in THE LITERARY DIGEST (September 18) on "An Ancient and Unsolved Riddle" has just come to my notice, and after reading it over carefully the thought came to me that the solution might possibly be "The Church." CHARLES H. PEASE.

ATLANTIC CITY, N. J.

Editor of THE LITERARY DIGEST:—

Seeing on page 626 of THE LITERARY DIGEST of September 18, 1897, an ancient riddle, of which you say no satisfactory explanation has ever been given, I beg to forward my solution of the same.

In order to make my explanation tenable, I shall have to assume some small change in the exact meaning, caused by translation, and so take the liberty of substituting the words "not solely" wherever the word "neither" occurs in the inscription. The solution is then: Life, Nature, and the Earth.

P. BRUCE NORTON.

SAN FRANCISCO.

Domestic Animals in Japan.

Editor of THE LITERARY DIGEST:—

The extract from the *Revue Scientifique* (THE LITERARY DIGEST, October 30) is not wholly correct. In Japan the use of beef and milk is frequent by those who can afford it. Many eggs are used, and chickens to some extent. In the southern part especially, the horse, bull, and cow are extensively used as beasts of burden, sometimes drawing a low wagon, but usually bearing the load (rice, charcoal, etc.) upon the back.

Japanese *do* ride horseback to some extent. The dog is sufficiently worthless, but not so wild as indicated in the article, and there is many a domestic dog in parts where a foreigner is seldom seen.

F. H. BASSETT.

KALKASKA, MICH.

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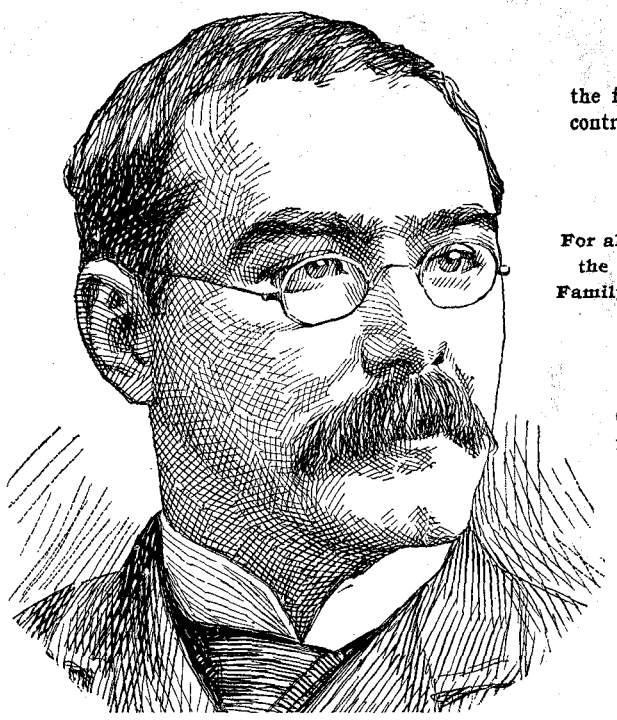

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BUSINESS SITUATION.

Reports of trade show moderate improvement in trade. Business failures for the week number 267 to 344 last year according to *Dun's Review*, and 235 to 273 last week, 308 a year ago, according to *Bradstreet's*.

Encouraging Prospects.—"All markets and all industries are working toward the period of Thanksgiving, of stock-taking, and of holidays. Colder weather has done much to accelerate retail trade, so greatly delayed in many lines by unusually mild and open weather. In spite of this delay, and the idea that it may render prices more favorable to buyers, despatches to-day from all parts of the West and South show a large volume of business, and tho fever at the South hinders, and stock speculation here does not swell clearings as it did five years ago, the payments through clearing-houses are for the month only 1.5 per cent. less than in 1892, and for the week outside New York 1.2 per cent. larger. The producing force increases on the whole, and many manufacturers are unable to take all the orders offered, while others are committed as far ahead as they are willing to be. The output in several great industries is considerably the largest ever known, and confidence in yet greater business next year is unabated. Hesitation in speculative markets is in part because an immense capital has been turned from them to investment in productive enterprises.

The excess of merchandise exports over imports in October made the balance $164,933,442 for three months, and after allowance for gold and silver movement, there still appears due this country $151,704,930, with undervaluations smaller than in recent years, and interest and dividends due abroad much reduced by foreign sales of securities during and since the panic. The heavy unpaid balance must be increased by large exports during the next four months, as the demand for breadstuffs and cotton increases. The prospect that considerable gold must be moved has a weakening influence on foreign exchange, and reported sales of stocks by Europe, 20,000 shares for the week, would not balance half a day's difference on merchandise account. Yet the stock market has been inactive, with little improvement in prices, and speculation is mainly occupied with reports about gas associations. Railways earnings continue large, for November thus far 21.5 per cent. larger than last year, and 2.9 per cent. larger than in 1892, with a heavy west-bound tonnage and a growing movement of east-bound cotton, new corn, dressed meats, hides, and lumber."—*Dun's Review, November 20.*

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improvement in staple prices and in distribution of woolen goods, shoes, hats, and hardware in the region tributary to Chicago, St. Louis, Kansas City, and Omaha. In South Carolina, Tennessee, and Louisiana jobbers report a moderate revival in demand from interior merchants, which represents some of the business delayed by yellow-fever quarantines. Trade reports from Georgia and Texas are quite irregular. Some cotton planters are compelled to sell cotton at a loss to meet advances made earlier in the season and have little or no surplus with which to buy merchandise. Others, notably in Texas, continue to hold cotton, which delays mercantile collections and in some sections has an unfavorable influence. Colder weather northwest and in the central Mississippi and Missouri river valleys have helped retail trade. Manufacturers of iron, steel, agricultural implements, stoves, railway cars, and woolen goods report an active demand and large output, altho the appearance of speculative steel has resulted in weakening the price of billets and a like tendency on the part of Bessemer pig iron.

"Higher prices are recorded for wheat, corn, oats, syrup, hides, leather, shoes, and for turpentin. The reaction in iron and steel is likely to be followed by an advance if the present rate of consumption continues. Lower prices for wheat flour and pork are expected to recognize the advances on wheat and Indian corn, so that a lower price for copper is practically the only important decline in the week. There is the usual long list of unchanged quotations, the more important those for cotton, print-cloths, wool, lumber, sugar, and coffee."—*Bradstreet's, November 20.*

Wheat, Corn, Cotton, and Wool.—"Wheat has advanced a cent during the week, and small fluctuations have been due to reports about Argentina rather than to the heaviest exports ever known. Atlantic exports, flour included, have been in three weeks of November 9,799,369 bushels against 6,052,106 last year, and in the crop year thus far over 86,000,000 bushels, while Western receipts have been in three weeks 21,203,660 bushels against 14,796,888 last year. Corn exports have been 7,010,041 bushels against 6,441,686 last year. Cotton declined to 5.81 cents, with heavy receipts, but closed at 5.87, with better foreign demand, and with frosts which have lessened the prospect of a heavy movement later.

The woolen market is embarrassed by the delay of winter weather, which retards orders from clothiers, altho most works have enough for some time ahead, and while cold weather and active retail trade would quickly bring a change, prices of wool are so high that some mills have stopped part of their looms. Cases are mentioned of mills which could realize a profit of $200,000 to $300,000 by selling the wool they hold, but can expect none by manufacturing at current prices. Wool markets have become stagnant, and sales are almost wholly to realize speculative profits, amounting at the three chief markets to only 4,213,000 lbs. for the week. Cotton goods continue weak as raw material declines, and goods are rather lower."—*Dun's Review, November 20.*

"Wheat exports show a heavy increase alike over last week and last year, and with one exception, that of the second week in September, is the largest single week's total on record. The total exports of wheat (flour as wheat) from both coasts of the United States and Montreal this week aggregate 6,653,792 bushels, against 5,445,542 bushels last week, 3,937,000 bushels in this week a year ago, 2,916,000 bushels in 1895, 3,312,675 bushels in 1894, and 2,764,080 bushels in 1893. The total exports in the second week of September, 1891, were 6,974,000 bushels. Corn exports also show a gain, aggregating 3,209,790 bushels for the week, against 2,975,721 bushels last year, 1,743,000 bushels in 1895, and 189,000 bushels in 1894."—*Bradstreet's, November 20.*

Canadian Trade.—"Mild weather has resulted in very soft roads throughout a portion of the province of Ontario, and has an unfavorable influence on interior trade. Business remains as last reported at Montreal, where navigation will close within a few days. Colder weather in Nova Scotia has increased the demand at Halifax for heavy goods. Large quantities of oats have been shipped from Prince Edward Island to England. The lumber export movement from New Brunswick is also noteworthy. There are 31 business failures reported from the Canadian Dominion this week, against 33 last week, 47 in the week a year ago, and 42 two years ago. [*Dun's Review*, 32 to 40 last year.] Bank clearings at Winnipeg, Hamilton, Toronto, Montreal, Halifax, and St. John amount to $27,800,000 this week, compared with $30,672,000 last week and with $23,417,000 in the week last year."—*Bradstreet's, November 20.*

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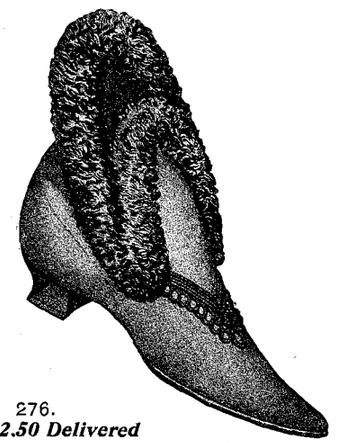

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Heart Disease.

Some Facts Regarding the Rapid Increase of Heart Troubles.

Do Not be Alarmed, But Look for the Cause.

Heart troubles, at least among Americans, are certainly increasing, and while this may be largely due to the excitement and worry of American business life, it is more often the result of weak stomachs, of poor digestion.

Real organic heart disease is incurable; but not one case in a hundred of heart trouble is organic.

The close relation between heart trouble and poor digestion is because both organs are controlled by branches of the same great nerves, the Sympathetic and Pneumogastric.

In another way, also, the heart is affected by that form of poor digestion which causes gas and fermentation from half digested food; these is a feeling of oppression and heaviness in the chest caused by pressure of the distended stomach on the heart and lungs, interfering with their action; hence arises palpitation and short breath.

Poor digestion also poisons the blood, makes it thin and watery, which irritates and weakens the heart.

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Current Events.

Monday, November 15.

The Supreme Court of the United States decides against claimants for **land grants** in **New Mexico**. . . . The State Department refuses to extradite **Jesus Guerra**, Mexican revolutionist. . . . The **Wyoming** supreme court, ruling that citizens must be able to read the Constitution in English, reverses **election** results. . . . **Yellow fever** quarantine is raised in many parts of the South. . . . *Ex-Congressman John M.* **Langston** (colored) dies in Washington. . . . The annual **horse-show** opens in Madison Square Garden, New York.

M. Scheurer-Kestner writes a letter to the Paris newspapers asserting that he has documents proving the innocence of **Captain Dreyfus**. . . . The American Minister to Haiti, Mr. Powell, obtains the release of **Herr Lueders,** over whose imprisonment trouble has arisen between Haiti and Germany. . . . The sentence of the lower court upon **Dr. Carl Peters,** formerly German High Commissioner in Africa, for extreme cruelty to natives, is confirmed by a court-martial. Dr. Peters is dismissed from the German service and ordered to pay the costs of prosecution. . . . A serious tension exists between Japan and Russia, owing to the latter's efforts to control the **Korean customs.**

Tuesday, November 16.

The **seal experts** make a unanimous report, and the diplomatic representatives reach an understanding by which they hope at a later date to bring about a settlement of all the questions. . . . President McKinley signs the **Universal Postal treaty**. . . . The Montana supreme court sustains the constitutionality of an **inheritance tax law**. . . . Charles A. Fair begins a contest of the **Fair will** at San Francisco. . . . The **Delta County Bank,** Delta, Colo., **fails**. . . . Joseph A. **Iasigi,** former Turkish Consul in Boston, is sentenced to 14 years at hard labor in state's prison for embezzlement. . . . The **Reeder-Van Valkenburg conspiracy** case is settled at Pottsville, Pa.

Count Esterhazy, implicated in charges, demands investigation of the **Dreyfus case** in France. . . . It is declared that the Pope does not accept the Laurier-Greenway settlement of the **Manitoba school** question. . . . The Whiteway ministry, Newfoundland, formally resigns. **St. Petersburg** suburbs are **flooded.**

Wednesday, November 17.

Premier Laurier and party leave Washington for Ottawa; reports that their mission proved a failure are officially denied. . . . William T. Malster is inaugurated **mayor of Baltimore**. . . . The last of the tenth series of **Cloakmakers'** strikes is successfully closed in New York. . . . The assembly of the **Knights of Labor,** Louisville, opposes an Anglo-American arbitration treaty. . . . Deaths: Rev. Dr. George H. **Houghton,** rector of "The Little Church Around the Corner," New York; Alfred **Ordway,** portrait painter, Melrose, Mass. . . . Henry **Sherry,** a lumberman, of Neenah, Wis., fails with liabilities of $1,000,000.

Details of the landing of **German troops at Kiao-Chau,** China, are published. . . . The **Porte** accedes to **Austrian demands** on account of indignities to a merchant. . . . Reinvestigation of the **Dreyfus scandal** is ordered by the military governor of Paris. . . . H. M. **Cornell,** formerly of New York, is declared a bankrupt in London. . . . **Striking engineers** and employees have agreed upon a truce until a conference in London, November 24.

Thursday, November 18.

The Government expresses satisfaction over the release of the *Competitor* prisoners, who sail from Havana. . . . The report of Cornelius N. Bliss, secretary of the **Interior Department,** is made public. . . . F. R. Ketchum, Chicago, secures $21,666.33 damages from the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad for **blacklisting.**

The *Competitor* prisoners are released from Cabanas Fortress in Havana. . . . The *Montserrat,* having ex-Captain-General **Weyler** on board, reaches Corunna, Spain; Weyler decides to remain on board until the steamer arrives at Barcelona. . . . The complete pacification of the **Philippine Islands** is reported from Madrid. . . . The friends of Captain **Dreyfus** allege that he was the victim of a conspiracy devised for blackmailing purposes, and that the documents he is charged with selling were forgeries. . . . **Russia** insists that the provisional commissioner of the powers for the island of **Crete** must be of Orthodox Greek faith. . . . To settle the **demands of Austria** the Turkish Government will pay an indemnity to Herr Brazzafolli, salute the Austrian flag, and pay the sum of $1,600,000 to the Oriental Railroad Company.

Friday, November 19.

The **cabinet** discusses currency legislation and Cuban affairs. . . . A Minneapolis alderman is found guilty of soliciting a **bribe of $10,000**. . . . Judge Allen, Boston, made permanent the receivership of the **Bay State Beneficiary** Association. . . . In a Pacific storm the **custom house** at Yaquina Bay, Oregon, is **blown down** and records lost. . . . Tammany Hall appropriates **$20,000 to Cuba,** and a like amount to the poor of New York city.

A destructive **fire** occurs in the Cripplegate district of **London**; two acres are burned over, and nearly one hundred warehouses and other buildings are destroyed; the loss is estimated at £3,000,000; St. Giles's Church is damaged. . . . The appointment of Prof. F. de Maartens as arbitrator in the **Anglo-Venezuelan dispute** is approved by the Czar.

Saturday, November 20.

Yale defeats Princeton at **football** 6 to 0; **University of Pennsylvania** defeats Harvard 15 to 6. . . . It is announced that Lieut. D. H. Jarvis, executive officer of the *Bear,* will command the overland expedition for the relief of the **ice-imprisoned whalers** in the Arctic. . . . The Indianapolis **Monetary Commission** takes a recess until December 15.

Russia demands that Turkey pay arrears of the **Russo-Turkish** war **indemnity**. . . . Premier **Meline,** speaking to the French Chamber of Deputies, attributes the agricultural crisis to monometalism, and expresses the hope that **bimetalism** will soon triumph.

Sunday, November 21.

Secretary Alger's report of the **War Department** is made public. . . . **Judge Thomas L. Nelson,** United States circuit court, Mass., **dies** in Worcester. . . . **President Eliot,** of Harvard, issues a defense of **football.**

A $5,000,000 **fire** occurs **in Melbourne,** Australia. . . . In a revolt among the **Sudanese troops** in Major MacDonald's expedition in Africa it is reported that several officers and soldiers were killed. . . . A sharp **collision** occurs **between** Social Democrats and Christian **Socialists** in Grätz, the capital city of Styria, Austria; the police and military are called out. . . . The steamer *Victoria* returns to Tromsoe, from Spitzburgen, without having obtained any information regarding **Andree.**

A Preacher's Discovery.

Dr. Blosser, who has for many years made a specialty of catarrhal diseases, has discovered a remedy that cures the worst cases of Catarrh, Bronchitis, etc. It is a penetrating, healing smoke vapor that goes directly to every affected spot, destroys the germs, and heals the mucous membrane. Any reader of the LITERARY DIGEST who will address Dr. J. W. Blosser & Company, 11, 12 and 13 Grant Building, Atlanta, Ga., will receive, postpaid, a three days' trial treatment free.

Bronchial Disease of the Lungs.

From Dr. Hunter's Lectures on the Progress of Medical Science in Lung Diseases.

The lungs are the great vital center of the body, on which the health and proper action of all other organs depend. If we cease to breathe for but five minutes we are dead at the end of that time. In rare and exceptional cases the flame of life can be rekindled by artificial respiration, but, as a rule, people sound and well when suffocated are dead beyond restoration at the end of five minutes. Have you ever thought why this is? It is because the functions of every vital organ stop the moment we stop breathing. Breathing makes the heart to beat, the blood to circulate, and the brain to send forth sensation and motion to the entire body.

The lungs, the brain, and the heart constitute the tripod of life, and while they act we cannot die. The heart depends on the lungs for its power to circulate the blood, and the blood depends on the lungs for its purification. Poisonous carbonic acid is formed in the blood by the healthy and natural action of the organism, and must be expelled by the act of breathing. This is God's appointed way of keeping our blood pure. If we stop breathing we retain this carbonic acid in the system, and five minutes accumulates enough to poison our blood and stop the whole machinery of life.

Hence all affections of the lungs are serious because they diminish the purity of our blood and in the same proportion injure our general health. Take for example a cold, which inflames the air passages and tubes of the lungs, swells their mucous lining, contracts the size of the tubes through which we breathe, and obstructs them by viscid secretions of mucus. As we cannot breathe through tubes that are narrowed or obstructed by mucus as well as through those that are open and free, so every cold while it lasts lessens our breathing according to its severity and in the same degree diminishes the purity of our blood, hurts our circulation, clogs the action of the heart and irritates the brain and nervous system.

Every disease which injuriously affects our lungs begins first in the mucous lining of the air passages—nose, throat, and bronchial tubes. The membrane is exposed to every change in the temperature of the air and to smoke, gas, dust, and all irritating and noxious matters floating in it, which all act directly on the breathing organs.

Oft-repeated irritation of the mucous membrane gradually develops into a *chronic bronchitis*—a condition of the lungs full of interest because so often mistaken and so liable to be mistaken for consumption, the most dreaded of lung diseases.

(To be continued.)

ROBERT HUNTER, M.D.,
117 West 45th Street.

NOTE.—Readers of LITERARY DIGEST who are interested for themselves or friends will receive Dr. Hunter's book free by writing to him at above address.

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CHESS.

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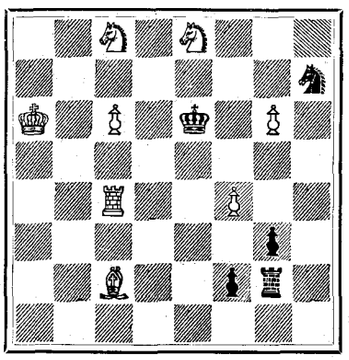
Problem 240.

BY G. J. SLATER.

From Nuova Revista degli Scacchi.

Black—Five Pieces.

K on K 3; Kt on K R 2; R on K Kt 7; Ps on K B 7 and K Kt 6.



White—Eight Pieces.

K on Q R 6; B on Q B 2; Kts on K 8, Q B 8; R on Q B 4; Ps on K B 4, K Kt 6, Q B 6.

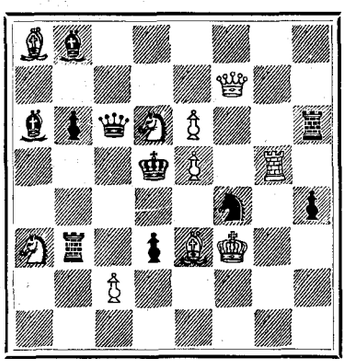
White mates in three moves.

Problem 241.

BY CONRAD ERLIN.

Black—Ten Pieces.

K on Q 4; Q on Q B 3; Bs on Q Kt sq, Q R 3; Kt on K B 5; Rs on K R 3, Q Kt 6; Ps on K R 5, Q 6, Q Kt 3.



White—Ten Pieces.

K on K B 3; Q on K B 7; Bs on K 3, Q R 8; Kts on Q 6, Q R 3; R on K Kt 5; Ps on K 5 and 6, Q B 2.

White mates in two moves.

Solution of Problems.

No. 235.

1. R—K B 3 / P x R	2. Kt x P, mate
1. ..... / P—K 6	2. R x B P, mate
1. ..... / P—Kt 7	2. Kt—B 2, mate
1. ..... / B moves	2. Kt (R 3), mates
1. ..... / Kt moves	2. Kt (B 5), mates

Correct solution received from M. W. H., University of Virginia; "Spifflicator," New York City; the Revs. I. W. Bieber, Bethlehem, Pa., J. A. Younkins, Natrona, Pa.; F. S. Ferguson, Birmingham, Ala.; G. M. Fernandez, New York City; F. L. Hitchcock, Scranton, Pa.; F. A. Mitchell, Independence, Mo.; K. O. McEwen, Detroit; F. B. Osgood, North Conway, N. H.; H. L. Lambert, Asheville, N. C.; J. C. E., Canal Dover, Ohio; R. G. Hensley, Oxford Junction, Iowa; H. Rembe, Derboro, Ont.; W. W. Gordon, Jr., Savannah, Ga.; G. L. Williams, Ohio Wesleyan University; G. Patterson, Winnipeg, Can.; E. A. More, Jr., Denver, Col.; "Ramus"; G. G. O'Callahan, Low Moor, Va.; W. C. Hill, Caribou, Me.; W. J. B., Bethlehem, Pa.; E. E. Whitford, Factoryville, Pa.; W. G. Donnan, Independence, Iowa; the Rev. J. S. Smith, Linneus, Mo.; Drs. W. S. Frick, Philadelphia; P. H. S. Vaughn, H. W. Fannin, Hackett, Ark.; V. Brent, New Orleans; Dr. J. P. Rice, San Antonio, Tex.; E. A. Morling, Emmetsburg, Ia.; A. N. Hosking, Chicago; J. J. Mayfield, Tuscaloosa, Ala.; C. A. Freeman, Omra, Wis.; O. B. Joyful.

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No. 236.

This problem is unsound, as it has two solutions. The author's solution is Kt—R 7, but K—Kt 5 will also do it.

Rev. J. A. Younkins, F. S. Ferguson, G. Patterson, and W. G. Donnan were successful with 234. The Rev. J. S. Smith, W. G. Donnan, R. G. Hensley, and "Trinity College," Hartford, got 233.

A Greek Gift.

The old saying, "I fear the Greeks bearing gifts," is finely illustrated in the following game. White gives the odds of K Kt.

MCDONNEL. *White.*	MR. ——. *Black.*
1 P—K 4	P—K 4
2 B—B 4	Kt—K B 3
3 P—Q 4	Kt x P
4 P x P	Kt x K B P
5 Castles	Kt x Q
6 B x K B P ch	K—K 2
7 B—Kt 5 mate	

Moral: Look several times before you accept Queens.

From the Berlin Tournament.

METGER VS. TSCHIGORIN.

Bishop's Gambit.

METGER. *White.*	TSCHIGORIN. *Black.*	METGER. *White.*	TSCHIGORIN. *Black.*
1 P—K 4	P—K 4	16 P—B 3 (e)	B—Kt 5
2 P—K B 4	P x P	17 Q—Q 2	B x Kt
3 B—B 4	Kt—Q B 3 (a)	18 R x B	Kt—K 4
4 Kt—K B 3	Kt—B 3	19 P x Kt	Q x B
5 Kt—B 3	P—Q 3	20 R—R 3	P x P (f)
6 P—Q 4	Kt—K R 4	21 B x Kt	K x B
7 Castles	P—K Kt 3	22 R—K B sq	P—K R 4 (g)
8 Kt—Q 5	B—R 3	23 R x R P	Q—B 4 ch (h)
9 Kt—K sq	B—K 3 (b)	24 K—R sq	R—K R sq
10 B—K 2 (c)	Kt—Kt 2	25 R—Kt 5	Q R—Q sq (i)
11 Kt x P	B x Kt	26 Q—K 2	R—R 5 (j)
12 B x B	B—Q 2 (d)	27 Q—B 3	R x P ch (k)
13 B—R 6	Castles	28 K x R	R—R sq ch
14 Kt—B 3	Q—K 2	29 K—Kt 3	P—K B 4
15 B—Q B 4	Q x P	30 R x P ch (l)	Resigned.

Notes (abridged) by Emil Kemeny in The Ledger, Philadelphia.

(a) P—Q 4 followed by Q—R 5 ch or Kt—K B 3, is the usual defense.

(b) Black could not guard the Pawn, and it would have been better to abandon it at once. Castles should have been played.

(c) Well played. Black can not answer B x Kt on account of P x B, followed by B x Kt.

(d) Necessary, for P—Q 5 was threatening.

(e) A very conservative play. White could have played Kt—K 5, which in all probability would have led to a speedy win.

(f) Black should have played Q—B 4 ch, followed by Q x K P, thus guarding the Kt. The next move enables White to establish a winning attack.

(g) Better, perhaps, was P—K B 4, followed by K—B 3 or K—B 2 and K—K sq should White continue Q—R 6 ch and Q x P ch. Black evidently overlooked the brilliant reply White had on hand.

(h) He could not capture the Rook on account of Q—Kt 5 ch, followed eventually by R—B 6.

(i) Q—Q 3, followed by Q R—K sq or Q R—K B sq, according to White's Q—K 2 or Q—K B 2 continuation, was the proper play.

(j) Q—Q 3 was still in order. Black would have lost the K P, but this would have led to an even game. The R—R 5 play was premature.

(k) Q—K 2 could have been played with safety. The sacrifice of the Rook is unsound and causes defeat.

(l) The decisive stroke, which very likely was overlooked by Black.

Chess-Nomenclature.

Our article on this subject has been received with considerable interest. Several periodicals have republished it, notably *The American Chess Magazine*. We are enabled to give further information on this study, furnished by a scholarly correspondent, who has given us a very exhaustive paper, our space, unfortunately, permitting the publishing of only an abridgement. In tracing the origin of Chess, our correspondent writes:

Fabricius (unfortunately his baptismal name is not given, but it would be natural to infer that it was Georg, the archeologist) mentions that it was invented by Schatrenscha, a celebrated Persian astronomer, and that the game at the time he was writing was called "Schatrenscha" in Persia. After considering the number of translations to which the name was subjected before reaching the language of Fabricius, it is not at all surprising if mistakes occurred, and it requires but little imagination to believe that the name of our astronomer is nothing more than a corruption of Chaturanga. In the Arabian the word would have the form "Shaturanja"; thence to "Shatrenscha" is an easy step. The classical Vida in his poem "De Ludo Scacchorum," which obtained for him the patronage of Leo X. (a devotee of the game), claims that Chess was invented by the Serian Nymphs in memory of their sister Scacchis, from whose name he ingeniously traces the derivation of the Italian *Scacchi* (plural for Chess), whence French *Echecs*, and our modern Chess. Some idea of his style, considered by many to be a blending of Virgil and Lucretius, can be gathered from the following short extract:

> Dicite, Seriades Nymphæ, certamina tanta
> Carminibus prorsus vatum illibata priorum:
> Vos hujus ludi in primis meminisse necesse est:
> Vos primæ studia hæc Italis monstrastis in oris
> Scacchidis egregiæ."

When first introduced to the Europeans, the different pieces were called by their Arabian and Persian names, but after a time were changed by their translation into the various languages, and further modified by terminations,—*Shah* becoming in German *Schach*, Icelandic *Skak*, Middle Latin *Scacci* plural, Italian *Scacchi*, French *Eschas*, *Esches*, *Echecs*, Early English Chesse, Chests, Middle English Ches, Chesse, and lastly modern Chess. Sanskrit *Roka* or *Ratha* was altered into Persian *Rokh*, ship or chariot, thence to Hindu and Arabian *Rukh*, Italian *Rocco*, Middle Latin *Roccus*, Old French *Roc*, and finally to Old English Roke, Rooke, Rok, meaning tor, tour, tower, Castle of the present. The *Beydal*, or foot-soldiers, were transformed into the French *Peon*, *Peone*, Spanish *Peon*, Italian *Pedone*, foot-soldier; and *Pedona*, a Pawn, from Latin *pedo*, and lastly our Pawn, formerly *Pown*, *Paune*, *Pawne*. The *Aspen Suar*, or horsemen, quite naturally by transition became our cavaliers, then Knights.

To explain the wonderful metamorphosis of the sex, name, and powers of the Persian *Pherz* into the Queen can only be accounted for by analogy, etymology, and a reconsideration of the results of Irwin's work. The Queen, as the consort of the King, was and is more agreeable to the taste, and more conformable to the customs of the Europeans, than would be the presence of a Vizier by the side of the King. In Chatrang she was known by the name of *Pherz*, meaning minister or counsellor, which was made by the Arabians into *ferz*, *farz*, *firzi*, etc., Latinized *farzia*, *fercia*, from which was derived the French *fercie*, *fierce*, *fierge*, *vierge*, last meaning a maid. From this to Queen is but an easy and short step and greatly assists in the explanation of the change of masculine sex of *Pherz* to feminine Queen. Another opinion that seems more reasonable is, that whereas a Pawn, by the same kind of promotion as at Draughts, became a Farzin on reaching the eighth square, so it consequently was made Queen.

Gambit is from Italian *gambetto*, a tripping-up of the legs (Old French *jambit; faire le jambit*, to make a feint, to deceive).

(To be Continued.)

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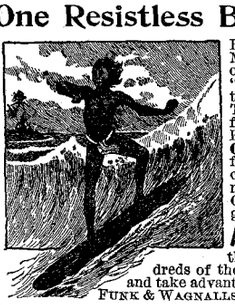

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2. – A – I – I – Name of the largest body of water.
3. M – D – – E – – A – E – – A sea.
4. – M – – O – A large river.
5. T – A – – S Well known river of Europe.
6. S – – A N – A – A city in one of the Southern States.
7. H – – – – – X A city of Canada.
8. N – A – A – A Noted for display of water.
9. – E – – E – – E – One of the United States.
10. – A – R I – A city of Spain.
11. H – V – – A A city on a well known island.
12. S – M – E – A well known old fort of the United States.
13. G – – R – L – A – Greatest fortification in the world.
14. S – A – L E – A great explorer.
15. C – L – F – – – I – One of the United States.
16. B – S M – – K A noted ruler.
17. – – C T O – I – Another noted ruler.
18. P – R – U – A – Country of Europe.
19. A – S T – A – I – A big island.
20. M – – I N – E – Name of the most prominent American
21. T – – A – One of the United States.
22. J – F – – R – – N Once President of the United States.
23. – U – – N A large lake.
24. E – E – S – N A noted poet.
25. C – R – A A foreign country, same size as Kansas.
26. B – R – – O A large island.
27. W-M-–S W-R-D Popular family magazine.
28. B – H – I – G A sea.
29. A – L – N – I – An ocean.
30. M – D – G – S – A – An island near Africa.

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